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ABSTRACT

Included in this guide to educational finance-related events in Washington, D. C. are discussions of the Education Amendments of 1972, new emphases and directions for Title I funds and projects, ways to get more Federal surplus funds for schools, some examples of how to train leaders and develop new ideas for drug education, new strategies for improving school food services, a short course in Federal aid grantsmanship, and cable television and its impact on schools. Also, a listing of films and other government audiovisual resources is provided, as well as directories of surplus property offices and sources. (RH)

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FEDERAL AID ★PLANNER

A Guide for School District Administrators

Summer 1972

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Washington *Analysis

The Education Amendments of 1972

Enactment of the $20 billion omnibus education bill--the Education Amendments of 1972--marks a significant new era in federal school involvement. In several new initiatives, the federal government has committed itself to major programs to aid school desegregation, educational research and financially troubled colleges. Although the bulk of the bill deals with higher education, Congressional leaders used the measure--the only major education bill to be considered by the 92nd Congress--to deal with other issues as well--ethnic heritage, consumer, occupational and Indian education programs. Included in the 155-page, 10-title measure were several controversial anti-busing provisions.

Desegregation Aid

All but obscured by the busing debate was the establishment of a large new program to help schools desegregate--the Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP). To date, the only federal money available to aid desegregation has been about $20 million a year in technical assistance under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act and about $70 million under a pilot ESAP project. The new bill offers a promise of $2 billion over two years to promote desegregation. The measure notes: "The Congress finds that the process of eliminating or preventing minority group isolation and improving the quality of education for all children often involves the expenditure of additional funds to which local education agencies do not have access." Funds can be used for a wide variety of general and specific purposes, including busing under certain conditions. However, the plan is not likely to receive all the $2 billion authorization. Congress typically doles out less than half of education authorizations. But the new program is now the second largest on the elementary and secondary education books, surpassed only by the mammoth Title I ESEA compensatory education program.

Research Institute

Another new federal initiative is the creation of a National Institute of Education (NIE). Based on the model of the National Institutes of Health, NIE promises more and better federally sponsored educational research. Establishment of NIE admits that top-notch schooling will require far more knowledge about learning and education than now exists--or can be expected from current research efforts. At least 90% of the $550 million authorized over three

years must be contracted out with private or public agencies or individuals. Congress also gave NIE the main responsibility for disseminating research findings, so that teachers and administrators can apply "the best current knowledge" to their problems. Here again, the bill states bold policy: "While the direction of the education system remains primarily the responsibility of state and local governments, the federal government has a clear responsibility to provide leadership in the conduct and support of scientific inquiry into the educational process."

New USOE Structure

Perhaps significant in the long run will be the new structure of the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) mapped out in the legislation. For years, education groups have wanted a separate department of education, and this bill takes the first step toward that goal by creating a new post of assistant secretary of education. The Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee said of the proposal: "The committee is serving notice that a Department of Education is now in order, and that within the next few years, the question of the proper organization of education policy bodies ought to be resolved...." The head of this new education division would oversee both the present USOE, headed by the U.S. commissioner of education, and the NIE. If, as seems likely, the federal government will eventually have to take over up to one-third of the cost of financing elementary and secondary education, many observers believe a U.S. Department of Education would almost be prerequisite.

Several sections of the bill can also be seen as dissatisfaction with U.S. Comr. of Education Sidney P. Marland's administration of USOE. The bill specifically prohibits unauthorized program consolidation and transfer--affecting Marland's proposed educational renewal plan. The new bill also mandates several key organizational changes which Marland did not want: creation of a deputy commissioner for vocational and occupational education, and a separate division of bilingual education within the bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education. The implication is that the Marland/Nixon Administration had been downgrading these and other programs, contrary to the intent of Congress. In another sense, the legislative prohibitions are a classic example of a fight between the legislative and executive branches over how programs should be run once they are set up. The congressional edicts seek to assert congressional, rather than executive, authority over education.

Special Interests

Another message gleaned from scrutiny of the new bill is that despite all the talk in the past several years about eliminating narrow, categorical programs, Congress continues to create them. In part, this is the result of pressure from special interest groups, as in the case of the ethnic heritage studies provision. In other cases, as in the establishment of special programs in consumer and Indian education, Congress wants to make sure that neglected areas get the attention it believes they deserve. The bill can also be seen as proof that lobbying does work. While the major programs, such as desegregation aid, NIE, student and college aid, were Presidential

proposals, the creation of a new vocational-occupational post and the establishment of an education division, were the result of steadfast lobbying by interested groups.

Words of Caution

There are two things the bill does not mean: the end of the busing controversy; or massive student aid for all college-bound high school students. Neither liberals nor conservatives were happy with the bill's anti-busing compromise which delays court-ordered busing in a district until all appeals have been exhausted, or until Jan. 1, 1974. Busing is allowed, under the legislation, if transportation does not endanger a student's health nor send him to an inferior school. But Southerners who had fought hard for an outright ban on busing are not likely to give up. Pres. Nixon signed the bill reluctantly, sharply criticizing Congress for not having provided strict and uniform limits on school busing. Presidential advisors say that Nixon will press for a constitutional amendment if Congress does not act on his stricter anti-busing proposals.

The much heralded student-aid provision entitling every student to a basic $1,400 federal grant adjusted according to need must also be seen in perspective. The flaw is that the full entitlement of $1,400 will not be available until Congress fully funds this part of the program at about $900 million annually--not an immediate prospect. If the overall appropriation is less, individual grants will be scaled down. In addition, the entitlements will not be granted in any year during which appropriations for existing programs of direct grants and loans fall below a certain level. Under the adjustment formula, few students will actually be eligible for the full $1,400 anyway. School guidance counselors and administrators should check the fine print in the education bill before sending students off with visions of federal cash.

By the Skin of the Teeth

Despite objections that might be raised against the bill, schoolmen should note that two years of work almost went down the drain on the final vote. The legislation got shouted down on the House floor minutes before final passage. Speaker of the House Carl Albert, reluctant to see such a landmark measure die over the emotional busing issue, called for a roll call vote. Observers in the gallery, who were keeping mental tabs of the "yeas" and "nays," counted the bill lost by about five votes. But somehow speeches on the floor, which kept reminding legislators that "if the bill's not perfect, it's the best we've got," must have made their mark. At the last minute, about a dozen Congressmen went up to the House clerk and changed their votes. The bill was narrowly approved: 218 for, 180 against. The Senate had approved it earlier by a wide 63-15 margin. As one Representative put it, "A bird in the hand is worth a dozen promises in committee."

Subsequent issues of the FEDERAL AID PLANNER will analyze in detail the bill's programs of direct interest to local school administrators.

Washington *Background

Title I— New Emphases and New Directions

CAPSULE: If you're a school administrator planning for Title I spending in the year ahead, you should know about...(1) a joint decision made late this spring by officials of the Division of Compensatory Education and the Right To Read program to encourage states and local school districts to use Title I funds in support of Right To Read programs; (2) a new commitment in the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) to identify ingredients of successful Title I projects and hold them up as models; (3) the continuing insistence on the part of U.S. officials to involve parents in Title I projects. The article below looks at each of these developments in detail.

1

THE RIGHT TO USE TITLE I FUNDS FOR READING INSTRUCTIONS

A program support package (containing written and visual materials) is being put together this summer to be sent to all state education departments in the fall explaining why Right To Read programs should be established with Title I funds and how this is to be done.

The package is the result of intensive work by a task force of officials from the Division of Compensatory Education and Right To Read. The materials in the package address themselves to state education officials, for their use in guiding local districts. Next year, possibly, says Paul Miller of the Division of Compensatory Education, there will be a handbook out that will take the message about Right To Read and Title I directly to local school administrators.

Background on Right to Read

The Right To Read program was created to deliver on a promise that more than 99% of the American children under 16, and 90% of our people over 16 years, will become functionally literate by 1980. To make the dream come true on schedule, the federal government is supporting school and community centers that utilize a variety of reading materials and techniques to raise the achievement level for children and adults.

Right To Read reported in May that it was in the process of funding for the 1972-73 school year 106 school reading centers and 74 community (adult)

centers. Grants to the centers are expected to total a little over $10 million.

Tie-in with Title I

The presentation package for the states will ask Title I coordinators and other officials to take the following actions to bring about a blending of Right To Read and Title I:

1. Redirect, where necessary, Title I funding so that there is a major concentration on reading and inclusion of Right To Read criteria in reading programs. Many Title I projects already concentrate on teaching the disadvantaged reading skills. But Right To Read officials want state Title I coordinators to encourage districts using Title I funds to experiment more with different reading materials and new teaching techniques, instead of giving children more of the same.

2. Use the Right To Read Plan of Action as a guide for implementing programs that evidence these characteristics:

   a. Carefully conceived performance objectives
   b. Diagnostic screening to determine individual reading deficiencies and a prescriptive approach to treatment of individual problems
   c. Provision for inservice training of staff
   d. Continuity over a period of years
   e. Fair and sound evaluation procedures
   f. Full parent participation

3. Identify at least 10 districts each year where Right To Read and Title I funds can work together. (USOE already has identified five states where Title I coordinators have indicated they will help get Right To Read programs going with Title I funds. The states are California, Minnesota, North Carolina, Ohio and Vermont.)

4. Sponsor regional conferences that will advise local school officials on how to coordinate Right To Read and Title I.

5. Identify and publicize promising practices for raising the reading achievement level of educationally and economically disadvantaged children.

6. Identify a minimum of three exemplary reading programs in the state and create demonstration centers that would be jointly funded by Right To Read and Title I.

7. Establish new evaluation criteria and procedures that would produce reliable data about pupils' achievement through Right To Read programs financed by Title I.

The presentation package coming out this fall will inform state officials that the Right To Read staff is ready to provide assistance to Title I projects making a commitment to the improvement of reading instruction.

"As local districts increase their commitment to Right To Read, Right To Read will increase its service to them," say officials. They indicate that Right To Read staffs could help districts develop criteria for effective reading programs; provide technical assistance to help get specific programs off the ground; make on-site visits; assist in modifying guidelines, policies and regulations to conform to Right To Read goals and criteria; and review proposed projects.

Local school district administrators who are interested in using Title I funds for a Right To Read program should obtain a copy of "The Right To Read: General Plan of Action for School-Based Right To Read Centers." The "Plan of Action" and additional information are available from Right To Read, U.S. Office of Education, 400 Maryland Ave. SW, Washington, D.C. 20202. Ruth Love Holloway is director of Right To Read (Phone: 202/963-3458) and Reuben Burton is associate director (Phone: 202/962-1681).

2

TWO MODEL PROGRAMS IN READING INSTRUCTION

The results of the studies of Title I projects and other compensatory education programs financed by the federal government in the last six years have usually been discouraging. It seems that when hundreds of programs and thousands of test scores are lumped together in a national survey, neither the average Title I program nor the average gain looks very good.

Federal officials are now saying, "Let's take a closer look at those programs and test scores that are good to find out why those programs are successful and why those children are showing gains." They are taking this approach, in part, to counteract the results of the statistical studies which have been recently publicized. Consider the following statement:

"There have been four large-scale evaluations of federally funded compensatory education programs. The main finding of these studies was that compensatory education has not been successful in significantly improving the achievement level of disadvantaged children."

That sweeping judgment begins the section on Title I in a recent federal report to Congress, "The Effectiveness of Compensatory Education: Summary and Review of Evidence." The report then goes on to summarize data collected from the four "large-scale evaluations."

One of the more recent studies was made by scholars Edmund W. Gordon and James Kourtrelakos. They examined the 1968-69 federal survey of Title I and other compensatory education programs and reported their conclusions to the Office of Education in 1971. Their major findings state that test results, generally, do not support the view that children in Title I programs make gains which are significant educationally.

But there are data that show that compensatory education in general and Title I in particular <u>do</u> produce significant achievement gains for children. And the data are cited in the very same report. For example, the California

State Dept. of Education compared 1970-71 gains in reading made by severely disadvantaged children with gains made by children of the same ethnic background who were not disadvantaged. "The result of a comparison of the achievement test results for the two groups of children was that they were nearly identical," says the federal report. "This finding is important because it is a fact that the children in schools where 75% or more of the children received Title I services are the most disadvantaged in the state and the comparison group is likely to have contained only a small proportion of disadvantaged children."

"The Effectiveness of Compensatory Education" also reports the findings of the Council on Basic Education when it examined four inner-city schools to determine the reasons for success in teaching disadvantaged children to read. Says the report:

"Factors that seem to account for success are: strong leadership, high expectations, additional reading personnel, use of phonics, individualized instruction, careful evaluation of pupil progress and good atmosphere....

"Not essential to the success of the four schools are: small class size, achievement grouping, high quality of teaching, school personnel of the same ethnic background as the pupils, preschool education and outstanding physical facilities."

An appendix to the federal report on compensatory education lists 41 programs in many states which have been evaluated and judged successful. To turn around an old saying, it appears that USOE in the past has been so busy looking at the forest (that is, all compensatory education programs everywhere), it has often paid insufficient attention to individual trees that seem to be bearing good fruit. As 1972-73 approaches, there are signs that this vision seems to be undergoing correction.

What Can Be Learned from Blue-Ribbon Title I Projects?

Last May, the Division of Compensatory Education invited state coordinators of Title I and other officials to an "Educators Fair" in Washington. The event demonstrated to the visitors, in addition to many other "successes," four exemplary Title I projects. The projects are located in East St. Louis, Ill.; Leominster, Mass.; Cleveland, Ohio; and El Paso, Tex.

The editors of FEDERAL AID PLANNER asked two of the four districts to submit data about their programs in the hope that their experience could provide guidelines and helpful tips for other districts planning new or revised Title I projects for 1972-73. Data supplied by the two districts, East St. Louis and Leominster, are through the school year 1969-70.

East St. Louis and Its Project Conquest

Background on the community: With a population of 68,000, East St. Louis is the fifth largest city in Illinois. Most of the people are in the grip of acute poverty. More than 80% of the population is black. Over

half of the city's schools are eligible for Title I funds. Between 51% and 84% of the students in these schools have been victims of serious economic and educational deprivation. District averages on standardized reading tests have consistently fallen several months below national norms.

Project Conquest was begun in 1965 to help poor, but potentially able, readers from schools in the most disadvantaged neighborhoods in the city. The three primary objectives of the program are (1) to raise the reading ability of children to a point where they can function successfully in regular classrooms; (2) to improve pupils' self-concept and motivation to learn; (3) to train regular classroom teachers in remedial reading techniques.

Children are selected from grades 1-6. When selected, they are reading at least one year below grade level, but they are judged to have the potential for improvement. At the start, Project Conquest served 100 children in one reading clinic. In 1969-70, almost 2,000 children from 26 public and parochial schools were served in four reading rooms (for children in grades 1-3) and three reading clinics (for children in grades 4-6).

Staffing and cost: The staff consists of a director, four supervisors, three supervising teachers, nine clinic teachers and nine reading room teachers, three teacher aides, three school-community aides and three clerks.

One of the four supervisors is in charge of all teachers in the clinics and reading rooms. The other three supervisors make the rounds of the 26 "home" schools to work with classroom teachers and to "insure that the classroom demands made on the project children are consistent with their clinical diagnoses." The three supervisors hold workshops and planning sessions where they demonstrate remedial reading techniques and assist in solving reading problems which hold back children in the teachers' classrooms. Each of the three supervising teachers is in charge of one of the reading clinics. Their job is to train clinic teachers, screen children for admission to the clinics, and prepare reports for "home" schools.

The project budget for 1969-70 was $286,524, of which $249,105 went for salaries. The per-pupil expenditure in Project Conquest was $263 above the district's normal per-pupil expenditure of $585.

Evaluation: Evaluation of reading achievement is based on pre- and post-test data, with gains compared to test norms. In 1968-69, evaluation was based on a random sample of 42 of 1,055 students; the 1969-70 evaluation was based on a random sample of 358 students.

In 1968-69, the Gates Reading Survey was used and the elapsed time between the pre- and post-tests was seven and one-half months. During such a period, the average nondisadvantaged child is expected to make a gain of .75 grade-equivalent units, or seven and one-half months. Any gain above that is considered educationally significant. The 42 children in the 1968-69 sample showed a mean gain in grade-equivalent units of .94, which was both statistically and educationally significant.

The 358 children in the random sample of 1969-70 were first given either the Gates Primary Reading Test, the Gates Advanced Primary Reading Test, or

the Gates Reading Survey. Seven and one-half months later they took the comparable, but more modern, Gates-MacGinitie reading tests. The scores on the Gates tests administered in the fall were converted to equivalent scores on Gates-MacGinitie tests.

From an analysis of the scores, educators concluded that "the students in the clinics and reading rooms made reading achievement gains that were significantly greater than that expected by nondisadvantaged children in a regular classroom for a comparable period of time."

Ingredients of success: A key aspect of Project Conquest is inservice training of classroom teachers. All nine teachers in the reading clinics for children in grades 4-6 are regular classroom teachers "on loan" to the clinic for a year. During the year they are trained by the supervising teachers, who are permanent staff members. At the end of the year, the clinic teachers either return to their classrooms or "graduate" into a reading room for children in grades 1-3. Each reading room is staffed by two teachers; no teacher can instruct in a reading room until he has first spent a year in the reading clinic under close supervision.

Children in grades 1-3 spend 45 minutes four days a week in the reading rooms. Children in grades 4-6 spend 45 minutes twice a week in the reading clinics. Any child is released from the program when he achieves his reading potential.

Children are taught in groups of six at the clinics and in the reading rooms. Clinical screening and diagnosis determines each individual child's problems. Staff conferences help prescribe materials and equipment to meet each child's needs.

Three supervisors work with the "home" schools to coordinate instruction there with instruction being given children in the project. Classroom activities are closely coordinated with activities in reading rooms and clinics so that each child has many opportunities to demonstrate progress.

A typical schedule for a 45-minute period in a reading room is as follows: phonics, 10 minutes; basal textbook, 15 minutes; programmed reading, 10 minutes; oral reading, word games or work on special devices such as a Controlled Reader, 10 minutes. A typical schedule for a reading clinic period is as follows: programmed reading, 5 minutes; basal textbook, 10 minutes; dictation, 10 minutes; oral reading, sight vocabulary games or work on special devices such as the Shadowscope Reading Pacer, 10 minutes.

The reading rooms and clinics use many of the same instructional materials, available on the commercial market. A sampling of the materials and equipment is as follows: Conquests in Reading (McGraw-Hill), Magic Word of Dr. Spello (McGraw-Hill), Programmed Reading Series (McGraw-Hill), New Reading Skill Series (Charles E. Merrill), Reading Skill Builders (Reader's Digest), Classroom Reading Clinic Kit (Webster), SRA Reading Lab (Science Research Associates), Dolch letter and word games (Garrard Press), Language Master (Bell & Howell), Controlled Reader (Educational Development Laboratories) and Shadowscope Reading Pacer (Psychotechnics, Inc.).

Parents attend orientation sessions and observe instruction periodically. Consultations between parents and staff are held regularly. The school-community aides visit homes of children to bring information to parents and answer their questions.

More information about Project Conquest may be obtained from:

Mrs. Bettye P. Spann
Director, Project Conquest
931 St. Louis Ave.
East St. Louis, Ill. 62201
Phone: 618/874-2070

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East St. Louis, Ill. 62201
Phone: 618/874-2206

Leominster and Its Project MARS

Background on the community: Leominster is a city of 31,000 persons located in central Massachusetts. Leominster relies primarily on one industry--plastics. The unemployment rate is about what it is in the rest of the country. Among families whose children are enrolled in the Title I project, 33% are on welfare.

Background on Project MARS (Make All Reading Serviceable): The project began in 1966-67. It serves slightly more than 200 children in grades 1-4 from four public schools and three parochial schools. The objectives of the program are "to raise the reading performance of students to a level consistent with their potential reading ability...and to foster academic motivation and favorable attitudes toward reading."

Staffing and cost: The staff consists of a part-time director, part-time financial administrator, seven full-time reading teachers (one per "home" school), two part-time clerks, and a part-time psychologist to evaluate and consult. The reading teachers, who work in reading areas at each of the seven schools involved in the project, are all experienced classroom teachers.

The 1969-70 budget was $41,308, of which $39,585 went for salaries. Approximately $300 per pupil above the 1969-70 average per-pupil expenditure of $600 was spent on children in Project MARS.

Evaluation: Students' performance on pre- and post-tests is compared to national norms. The Reading and Word Knowledge tests of the Metropolitan Achievement Test series were used in 1968-69 and 1969-70. In 1968-69, seven months elapsed between the pre- and post-tests; in 1969-70, the time span was six months.

In order to be educationally significant, gains in 1968-69 had to exceed .70 grade-equivalent units, the average gain over a seven-month period for a nondisadvantaged child. Analysis of test results in this instance showed that educationally significant gains were made only in word knowledge for children in grades 3-4. Test data for 1969-70 (except for grade 1) showed that all gain scores, except word knowledge in grade 2, were significant. And, with the exception of the gain in word knowledge in grade 4, the gains were also educationally significant.

Ingredients of success: The seven reading teachers who started with the program in 1966-67 have remained with it. In the first two years, they attended weekly inservice team training sessions. Sessions are now held monthly. The teachers also attended a special summer institute on reading at the start of the project. They are expected to participate in a similar experience at least every three years to keep abreast of developments in reading instruction. At the inservice team training sessions, specialists instruct teachers in interpreting test scores; phonetic and word analysis skills; teaching the educationally disadvantaged; remedial reading techniques; and motivating children to read.

Children are selected for the program on the basis of standardized reading tests (except first graders), classroom performance in their "home" school, and teacher and principal observations. The children are released from nonacademic instruction to attend a 45-minute remedial reading session every day. No group is larger than six students, and in some cases there is individual instruction in half-hour sessions.

A typical 45-minute period is divided into three parts: (1) skill development, (2) oral and silent reading, and (3) word games. Reading teachers work closely with classroom teachers in the "home" school to coordinate what is done in the reading class with what is done in the child's regular classroom.

At the start of the program, every elementary teacher in the school system, including the special reading teachers, contributed one or two favorite remedial reading techniques that had worked successfully with children. These techniques were collected into a booklet called "Reading Recipes in Leominster."

Teachers are urged to be creative and experimental. Materials used in traditional classroom reading instruction generally are not used in the project. Each teacher is encouraged to use those materials and techniques with which he is most comfortable. Among teaching practices which have proved most beneficial for children are:

- Children compose their own stories, which teachers then type on a primary typewriter (extra large letters). The stories are stapled and passed around among other children.

- Most teachers begin each session with a 5-minute talk-and-show activity to stimulate verbal interaction.

- Teachers make reading exercises that are tailor-made for individual children in the group. These exercises are color coded and stored in brightly decorated cereal boxes.

Materials used by Project MARS that are different from those used by Project Conquest in East St. Louis are as follows: I Can Read books (Garrard Press), Word Wheels (J. L. Hammett), I Can Read books (Behavioral Research Laboratories), Sullivan Programmed Reading Materials (BRL), Phonetic Reader Series (Educational Publishing Service) Easy to Read Books (Scholastic Press), Revised Structural Reading Series, A-E (L. W. Singer Co.), Standard Test

Lessons in Reading (Teachers College Press), Gates Peardon Reading Exercises (TCP), Round Table Easy to Read books (Allyn & Bacon), Happy Times with Sounds (Allyn & Bacon), Webster's Reading Clinic Lab (McGraw-Hill), New Practice Readers (McGraw-Hill), Phonic Skill Tests (Charles Merrill), Fun with Phonics (Kenworthy Educational Co.), Word Blends (Kenworthy), Specific Skill Series (Barnell Loft), Easy to Read Series (Random House), Reluctant Reader Books (Random House), revised Basic Reading Series (Lippincott), Getting Ready to Read (Houghton Mifflin) and Introducing English with Spirit Masters (Houghton Mifflin).

A variety of games, charts, cards, flannel boards and manipulative materials also are used. "Visual and auditory discrimination training is important in the program, and film strips, tapes and transparencies are used extensively," says the director.

Parents of children in the program are invited to school periodically to observe instruction, and they meet regularly with school and project personnel. A 27-member parent advisory council meets on a scheduled basis.

Further information about Project MARS may be obtained from:

Martin Moran
Superintendent
Leominster Public Schools
Leominster, Mass. 01453
Phone: 617/534-6508

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PARENT INVOLVEMENT: WHY, WHAT AND HOW

A handbook on parental involvement in Title I projects will be published and made available to Title I project schools within a few weeks, according to Paul Miller of USOE's Division of Compensatory Education. Miller released an advance preliminary draft of the handbook for review by FEDERAL AID PLANNER editors.

The Division of Compensatory Education refers to the proposed handbook as a "guide for local educational agency directors and for parents as they develop a partnership and begin to plan and implement programs." The handbook is divided into eight parts: Rationale for Parental Involvement, Goals for Parental Involvement, Types of Involvement, Rights and Responsibilities, Parent Council Membership, Council Organization, Council Activities and Council Support Needs.

The handbook warns school officials against creating "paper" or "figurehead" parent advisory councils. The real object is to create a "partnership between home and school, between community and school." The emphasis in the handbook is on the organization and operation of parent advisory councils.

The federal government spells out the "rights" that should be accorded members of the parent council:

1. Members of the council should be given complete information about the planning, operation and evaluation of Title I projects.

2. They should be given ample time to review children's needs and the proposals for meeting those needs.

3. They should have ample opportunity to recommend solutions to problems.

4. They should have time to review Title I project results.

5. They should know about and understand the performance criteria upon which evaluations are based.

6. They should be supplied information on ways all parents can help their children to get the most out of Title I services.

7. They should be able to present their views concerning an application for Title I funds before the application is submitted for final approval by the school board.

8. They should have the chance to review the application for funds before it is submitted to the state education department.

9. Finally, members of a parent council should be assured that their views will be considered seriously by education officials.

The handbook stresses, however, that parent councils have no right "to approve projects or to veto projects approved by appropriate school personnel."

Members of the parent advisory council should be involved in a number of activities, says the handbook. For example, they should:

- Help assess the needs of deprived children.
- Assist in the development of project goals and priorities.
- Advise on the best ways to involve other parents and the community in the Title I project.
- Review and comment upon evaluation design and results.
- Serve as a link between parents and community residents on the one hand, and project and school personnel on the other.
- Play a role in disseminating information about the project and evaluation results to parents and community residents.
- Participate in training sessions to help them become effective.
- Attend periodic sessions to review different aspects of Title I projects.
- Review year-end results.

- Participate in planning sessions for future projects.

The handbook gives suggestions for recruiting members for parent advisory councils. A key point is that parents of educationally deprived children living in the attendance area served by the Title I project must make up more than a "simple majority" of the total membership of the council. The council membership must represent parents of parochial school pupils included in the project.

The handbook urges school authorities to conduct "an active recruitment program to secure members for the parent council." Letters and newspaper announcements may be insufficient means to reach prospective members. Other means such as home visits, radio and TV appeals, and notices in neighborhood shops and meeting places could be parts of the recruitment effort.

Members of the advisory council require much information, says the handbook. Some of the data that should be provided members are as follows:

- Information about the structure and organization of the school system, and how teachers are recruited.
- Facts about the school budget and how the money is spent.
- Laws and regulations affecting the Title I project.
- Facts about the children to be served by the project--their needs, their capabilities and how they are identified.
- Information about personnel, materials and equipment required to make the Title I project a success.

Federal officials say in the handbook that members of a parent advisory council should have skills that allow them to participate in group discussions effectively, to make decisions and to exercise leadership among other parents and community residents.

Council members should have adequate preparation to provide them with information and needed skills and acquaint them with their rights and responsibilities, says the handbook. "Some of the techniques for group training might include condensed readings, case studies, role playing, small discussion groups, audiovisual techniques, special exercises, speakers, student ideas, frequent visits to classrooms and panel discussions."

The handbook advises local school officials that they should be prepared to give the parent council some secretarial assistance, a meeting place, translators for non-English speaking persons, suggestions for speakers and counselors, and general staff support. It may even be necessary and desirable to appropriate a small portion of Title I funds for operation of the council, says the handbook.

Finally, the handbook advocates periodic examination of the parent council to determine how well it is living up to predetermined goals. The evaluation should include council members, school officials and other parents and community residents.

Washington *Advisory

Getting More U.S. Surplus for Your Schools

CAPSULE: For nearly a quarter century, the U.S. government has been lending, donating or selling--from two to ten cents on the dollar of original cost--billions of dollars of real estate and movable property. Although many nonprofit groups are also eligible, four-fifths or more of this surplus property has gone to schools and other educational institutions. Are you getting your share? Here's a surplus property primer for those who may not be taking full advantage of this federal education aid program, plus tips that may have been missed by old hands at acquiring surplus property.

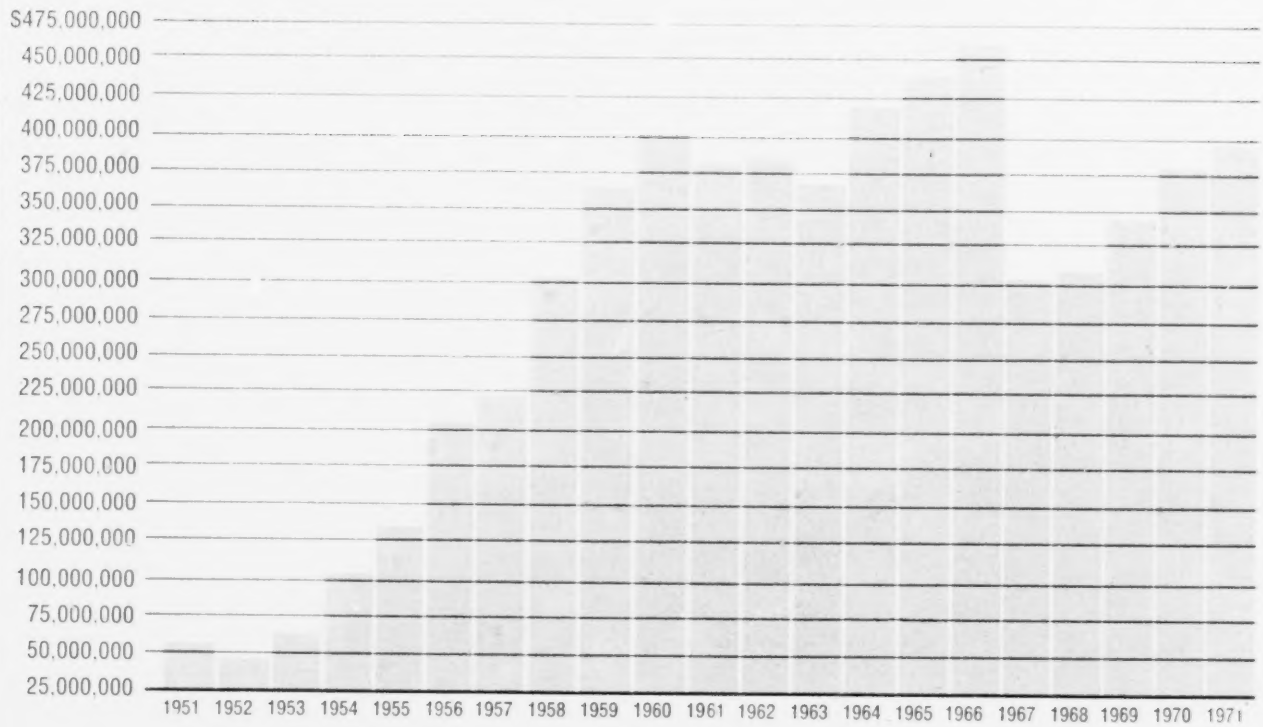
GETTING READY TO SHOP IN U.S. BARGAIN BASEMENTS

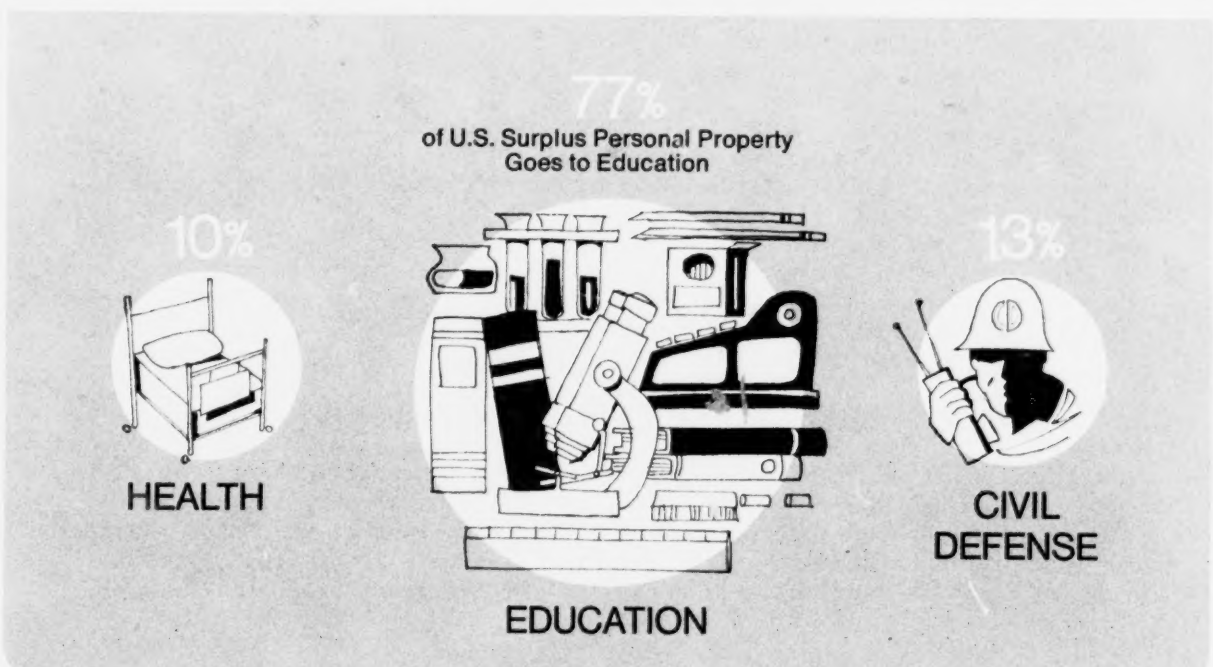
To get your fair share of U.S. surplus items, you will have to learn the ropes, and someone on the staff will have to learn the fine points, fill out the inevitable forms and keep in touch with your state surplus property agency. Is it worth it? Ask the school children in Texas whose four-seat seesaw gets its bounce from a giant spring that once helped get missiles off the ground. Or the science teachers who demonstrate the effects of atmospheric pressure with discarded airplane altimeters. Or the school board of Westerly, R.I., which got some slightly battered desks. After they were refinished by woodshop students, they "looked as good as if one had paid hundreds of dollars for them," says the assistant superintendent.

Every federal agency and installation discards some property from time to time, because it is either outmoded, unneeded or worn out. But nine-tenths of the federal surplus comes from the military forces, a statistic that has special meaning today. Winding down the Viet Nam war and reducing military commitments in Europe and elsewhere means more surplus property for schools. The Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) has assigned staff people to screen warehouses in Germany, Okinawa and Japan. The government's "Home Run" program, which speeds homebound shipments into the surplus property pipeline, has been operating since 1969 and is getting bigger all the time.

Federal property is "excess" (to the needs of the agency owning it) before it becomes "surplus" (available for donation or sale). "Excess" property is offered to other federal agencies first. Manpower training projects, supported by federal funds, have first choice of "excess" property, which is placed on loan and must be returned to Uncle Sam eventually. School systems and other recipients of federal grants may also be eligible for "excess" property if it is available and necessary for the grant project. However,

WHERE UNCLE SAM'S SURPLUS PERSONAL PROPERTY GOES





Source: Department of Health, Education & Welfare

the "excess" property route is often a detour rather than a bypass; the main freeway is the road to "surplus" federal property.

A Word About Real Estate

Real estate can be your biggest bargain in the federal surplus property market, but only if it happens to be in the right place. Surplus federal real property can be a bonanza, true. The buildings at the old Nike site near Marlboro, Md., made a splendid facility for the Edgemeade School for emotionally disturbed children. The offices are now classrooms, the radar center is a library, the underground missile bunker is a gymnasium, and the crew's sleeping quarters are now the student dormitory.

Spectacular acquisitions of this kind are hard to find nowadays, though not impossible. A more likely possibility is acquisition of surplus federal real property for an athletic or outdoor education facility, a camping or conference center, or an ecological demonstration. Use of transferred real estate will be controlled by the terms of your agreement with the U.S. government for up to 30 years, during which you cannot sell, lease or otherwise encumber it. Yet even these restrictions may be relaxed, with the government's prior consent, as the years pass.

Surplus federal real estate may include buildings--houses, hospitals, Quonset huts or barracks. These may be removed for their salvage value, for use in the conversion of other structures, or for reerection elsewhere. These possibilities should be kept in mind by your buildings-and-grounds superintendent and by your vocational education instructor. Except for payment for removal of the property and the cost of a performance bond, it may be possible to secure the property at a 100% discount of fair market value.

Where To Start

The first step, to get either real or personal property, is to make yourself known to your state surplus property agency.

> And make yourself known to the other facilities concerned with distribution of surplus property. A series of DIRECTORIES is given in this issue of the PLANNER, p. 65.

School systems normally have no trouble in establishing their eligibility for federal surplus property. "Intermediate school districts" have encountered some problems, but Congress is considering changing the law to clarify this. Educational radio and television stations qualify, as do public libraries.

Surplus federal personal property is allocated among the states. Each state agency compiles "want lists" which are sent to HEW's regional offices. Whether the state gets what it wants depends on first, whether the items are available; second, how much property the state has been getting. States that have been receiving three-fourths or less of the amounts to which they are entitled, on the basis of the nationwide, proportionate allocation, must get

their "want lists" filled, even if the surplus has to be obtained from another HEW region. Currently, states have been acquiring between 17% and more than 100% of their entitlements for surplus personal property. How much they get, aside from the question of its release by the federal agency using the property, depends primarily on the length of their "want lists" and that, in turn, depends on you--the school district administrator.

You have to have your own "want list" and keep it current. It's hard to imagine anything you cannot obtain through your state surplus property agency or the other channels described in this report. Uncle Sam offers hand and machine tools, furniture, motor vehicles, electronic equipment, hardware, construction equipment, small boats, aircraft, office machines and textiles of many types. Property is available on a "where is, as is" basis, with no warranty. Items may be new or little used.

It's easy to see how schools can use surplus typewriters, filing cabinets, drafting tables or kitchen equipment. Imagination and ingenuity are needed to realize that outdated photographic paper is ideal for water color work in art classes or that packing crates can become benches for early childhood education classes. Steel bedsteads from an abandoned Army barracks were reassembled to build bleachers for a school stadium in Texas. An Army jeep was converted into a snowplow. The Grove City, Ohio, elementary schools are using a parachute in physical education. The cords were removed and braided into jump ropes. Vocational and science teachers are notably quick to see what use can be made of surplus property. Although your system will

Surplus Property for Elementary Science

To find what they want amid the mountains of surplus federal property, educators must learn how to translate government catalog terminology into the language of the classroom. For example:

If You Need...	Look for...
Lenses, magnifying	Broken projectors, telescopic sights.
Lenses, ultraviolet	Welding goggles or shields, spare parts.
Prisms	Spare parts kits for tank periscopes, bore-sighting equipment, range-finders.
Compasses	Spare life raft and small boat equipment.
Meters	Repair and spare part kits for communications equipment.
Glassware	Hospital supplies and spares.

have one person authorized to deal with the state agency, arrangements can be made for teachers, too, to visit the state distribution centers and browse around.

Dealing with Your State Agency

The closer your contacts with your state surplus property agency, the more property you will obtain. The state agency periodically sends to federal officials lists of uncommon items it is seeking; these lists are compiled from requests made by school officials. Obviously, the more thoroughly you make your needs known to the state agency, the more likely you are to get what you want.

Each state maintains at least one warehouse for its surplus property inventory. Items move in and out fast, and unpredictably, so that it sometimes is not practicable to circulate lists of what's in stock. Therefore, someone on your staff should visit the state agency warehouse at frequent intervals to see what's available and to determine its condition. There's no substitute for "kicking the tires." One school surplus property specialist found an inoperative $960 calculator at his state's warehouse. After a few telephone calls, he learned he could get it repaired, with a year's guarantee, for $300, so he filled out the forms and carried it away with him. State warehouses have regular "visiting hours" or are open by appointment. Their staffs can give valuable advice about using or converting surplus equipment for school, office or classroom use.

State agencies operate on a self-supporting basis, so you will probably have to pay a small service charge to cover packing, handling, transportation and overhead expenses. When you acquire federal surplus property in this way, you will have to certify that you will cover shipping and handling costs and abide by state and federal terms, conditions and restrictions. State requirements vary widely. For property with a single-item acquisition cost of $2,500 or more, federal regulations...

- require use within 12 months
- prohibit sale, cannibalization, disassembly or other disposal for four years (two years for motor vehicles) without HEW's approval
- may call for reports on the property
- say what happens when the property is no longer needed or usable
- delineate the liability in the event of a breach of regulations.

Avoiding the Middle Man

Federal agencies are authorized to dispose of "nonreportable" property directly, without reporting it through the normal channels that lead directly to your state surplus property agency. This may be property of low dollar value or in poor condition. A wrecked vehicle, on the other hand, may be just

what your auto mechanics class can use this semester, and surplus of this kind is normally nonreportable. The point for schoolmen to keep in mind is that plenty of useful items are nonreportable and may not get into the usual surplus property pipeline. The state agency may have to locate such "goodies" at the military installation. You may have to locate such surplus items yourself.

This kind of surplus, if not claimed in the donation program, is sold, either by the installation where it is generated, by the Defense Dept. or by the General Services Administration (GSA) for the civilian agencies. State and local government agencies, including school systems, can buy this surplus property by negotiated sale. If none show up to negotiate, the surplus is put up for sale on a competitive basis in one of three ways:

- Sealed Bid--An Invitation for Bid is mailed to prospective buyers, which may include school systems. Offers go back by mail and the high bidder is notified as soon as possible.

- Spot Bid--A written bid is submitted while the sale is in progress.

- Public Auction--Traditional commercial methods are followed.

As items become available for sale, GSA may send a catalog or other announcement to its mailing list of prospective buyers. These lists are categorized, so if you want both vehicles and office equipment, you will have to place your name on two lists. What's more, each of GSA's ten regional offices maintains its own lists and runs its own sales. To get on the proper GSA lists, however, you should write your regional office of GSA. Addresses are given in the DIRECTORIES, starting on p. 69.

The Defense Dept. disposes of its surplus in virtually the same manner as GSA. State or local government agencies, including school systems, can get specific items through negotiated sales, but once surplus property has been catalogued for a competitive bid sale and offered to the public, it will not be withdrawn for negotiated sale. Local education agencies and other government bodies can, of course, bid for the property competitively along with everyone else. To get on the military surplus property disposal lists, write your nearest Defense Surplus Sales Office. Addresses are listed in the DIRECTORIES, p. 70, under the heading "Defense Surplus Sales Offices."

Certain military installations also conduct retail sales at fixed prices. Local auctions and spot bid sales are also held frequently at military posts, air bases and naval installations. To be advised of these opportunities in your area, get in touch with the appropriate Defense Surplus Sales Office. It's worth doing. The Pascagoula, Miss., schools got a dilapidated bus from nearby Keesler Air Force Base. After the high school vocational students installed new seats, a new floor, heaters, wiring and other improvements, the elementary school children had a bus for field trips.

The military services also dispose of surplus property generated by their civilian contractors. This is handled through yet another set of offices. Their addresses are given in the DIRECTORIES, starting on p. 70, under the heading "Contractor Inventory."

The federal government's housekeeper, GSA, operates more than 60 self-service stores where government workers "buy" their office supplies and other items with purchase orders from their agencies. Federal agencies can also get equipment and supplies from GSA warehouses or directly from manufacturers under contract as government suppliers. Because Uncle Sam is a quantity buyer--biggest in the land for most items--and GSA's overhead costs are covered by congressional appropriations, prices are low in these little-known "discount stores." Felt-tip pens sell for half their usual retail price, for example, and color transparencies for overhead projectors are available at two-thirds the usual price.

Agencies and institutions receiving federal grants used to shop at GSA stores. Many school systems--in Georgia, for instance, and elsewhere--took advantage of this unpublicized opportunity. Recently, however, the President's Office of Management and Budget (OMB) ordered a ban on sales to government grantees or contractors. Through their trade associations, businessmen had protested GSA's "open door" policy. The agency conceded that it had no way of assuring that supplies bought by federal grantees would be used solely for the grant-supported project, as required by law.

Some Congressmen have objected to the OMB action, which prevents GSA from allowing any new customers into its sales outlets and may in time bar grantees that have been buying until now. GSA's proposed new regulations may be liberalized as a result of these pressures. Schools that have been buying from GSA should continue doing so as long as it is legal; others should try to shop at these "discount stores" if they can. Either way, purchasing agents should keep an eye on the situation.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF DRUG EDUCATION

1. Community participation
2. Youth involvement
3. Integration into the total educational process
4. Factual, non-biased information
5. Humanistic approach

Source: U.S. Office of Education

Washington *Briefing

Training Leaders and Providing New Ideas for Your Drug Education

CAPSULE: A school district with a serious commitment to educate students on the drug abuse crisis needs access to trained leaders...workable concepts for its drug education efforts...and sources of information. This report covers the three points. We begin with a briefing on the new training centers which are designed to produce new cadres of community leaders for the fight against drug abuse. This is followed by an examination of a "model" program, whose concepts can be adapted by any school district. A listing of sources of information rounds out the report.

PROVIDING TRAINED LEADERSHIP TO SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

The U.S. Office of Education (USOE) has shifted the emphasis in its drug education programs. USOE now plans to concentrate on "providing trained leadership and follow-up assistance to communities."

This means that for the time being, USOE is not planning to fund new drug education programs under the Drug Abuse Education Act of 1970; but it will continue 46 programs started in fiscal 1971 for a second year.

The new directions for USOE's Drug Education Program center on the theme of "let's help communities help themselves." In proposing the shift in emphasis, USOE offered this rationale:

"Two years of program experience have resulted in a better understanding of the deficiences which communities have in dealing effectively with their drug problem. Most communities...are having difficulty both in dealing with the immediate crisis and in finding long-range solutions. Although these problems are related to fund shortages, they are even more fundamentally related to the lack of expertise in the form of trained leadership.... If a community is to meet successfully the challenge of drug abuse, it must have a trained group of leaders who are capable of...providing the expertise needed to help plan, direct and implement community-based drug prevention programs."

To carry out its new goal, federal officials have established eight regional drug education centers to train community teams of five or six persons to be the leaders in developing a coordinated community drug education program. Seven of the centers opened in May and immediately began to conduct two-week training sessions for the community teams. The eighth

center, located at Marjorie Webster Junior College, in Washington, D.C., was scheduled to open in July. (See p. 33 for list and annotation.)

The new "Help Communities Help Themselves" program will directly affect the 817 communities which were chosen to participate from among 3,000 proposals submitted last winter. All 817 communities will send a team to a regional center for training, financed by mini-grants of between $2,000 and $5,000 for transportation and living costs.

According to criteria developed by USOE, the members of each team will represent "a diversity of interests and a variety of professions or backgrounds." Individual team members must also have demonstrated leadership, potential for leadership, and concern about the drug abuse problem. The team members "should have open communication with local institutions and power structures in the community...."

The schools are not being left out of this new effort. The criteria include this requirement: "Since this is a drug prevention program with an educational bias, the Office of Education feels that it is essential that at least one team member be directly involved with elementary and secondary education. An appropriate representative might be a superintendent, a principal, a school board member or a teacher who has substantial influence and impact on educational decision making within the community."

The criteria also require that a student or another young person, age 16-22, be included on the team. A final stipulation concerning the selection of team members requires a commitment from the member's institution or agency. It must agree that the team members will be given the time to assist in developing a preventive drug education program for the community after the training period is over.

In setting up this new community-oriented program, USOE also confronted the question of "What is a community?" And it has come up with a definition:

"A community is defined as a set of people who have common needs and should be able to affect decisions which have an effect on them." Ordinarily this might be a town, a neighborhood, a specified rural area, or an organic or legal entity such as a school community, a college community, a military community."

Developing Skills of Leadership

After the community has been pinpointed and the team members selected, the next step is the two-week training sessions at a regional drug education center. Training will focus first on providing each team member with current knowledge on drug education. Second, the individual will gain experience in relating to others. Third, he will learn skills to help him analyze community problems and pressures and devise means of coping with them.

In essence, the teams will be provided with a basic knowledge of drugs, drug abuse prevention, treatment and rehabilitation methods, communications skills and teamwork development. It is expected that the team members will

gain "the skills and the facts" which will enable them to go back home and take the following actions:

- Determine the extent and nature of the local drug problem
- Decide what type of drug education is needed in the community
- Assess and mobilize the community's resources by seeking such community support as volunteer help and financial aid
- Develop a coordinated community program which responds to that community's drug problem.

The regional centers will also have the responsibility of follow-up actions. A "pool of authorities" in drug abuse education and community action will be available in the center to help with particular problems and to provide technical assistance. The entire team may return to the center after six to eight months for an additional training period of three to five days.

USOE has not promised to provide any financial help for starting these community drug education programs. In fact, the criteria say that "the team will...motivate the community to find resources of its own in order to cope with its drug problem and to plan and implement drug abuse prevention programs." In addition, a team's sponsoring agency must promise to provide partial funding for the new community drug education program.

Start-Up Grants for Communities

However, USOE sources say it is possible that the emphasis in fiscal 1973--the third year for programs under the Drug Abuse Education Act--will be placed on providing start-up grants to some of the community programs. It is almost certain that fiscal 1973 funds will also be provided for continuing the regional training and support centers for drug education. USOE sees these centers, which are staffed by community organizers, psychologists, innovative educators and former drug addicts, as an "ongoing" part of its drug education efforts. The centers received about $2.5 million in fiscal 1972 funds for first-year operation. And an additional $1.8 million was provided for mini-grants to the 817 community teams.

The regional centers may also play a role in the drug education efforts of other communities which were not selected to participate in the "Help Communities Help Themselves" program. USOE sources stress that the regional centers are not operating solely for the benefit of the 817 communities participating in the program. In fact, any community may put together a team which meets the criteria mentioned earlier and apply to the appropriate regional center for permission to participate in a two-week training program. These teams will be accepted for training as space permits. Although the centers do not charge tuition, these teams would have to pay their own transportation and living costs since no more mini-grants are available.

USOE intends for the regional centers to provide resource materials and technical assistance to other drug education projects which are funded

by federal grants or supported by state education agencies. And after all these other priorities are met, the centers will "offer any assistance they can and do anything that is feasible" to help other schools, colleges and communities in the region with drug education programs, the spokesman said.

THE OHIO PROGRAM: CAN YOU USE ITS CONCEPTS?

USOE's Drug Education Program has not selected any exemplary programs as models for the rest of the nation. Nor does it plan to do so, although it is hoping that some of the efforts which are under its auspices will become "replicable" for other areas.

However, USOE's Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education chose one "innovative and promising" drug education program for exhibition at USOE's first national education fair, "ED/Fair '72," in Washington, D.C., early in June. The program selected, the Ohio Developmental Drug Education Project, was started in fiscal 1969-70 with $329,240 from Title III of ESEA. It was launched cooperatively by the Dayton and Lima, Ohio, public schools and an independent research agency in Cleveland, the Educational Research Council of America. When fully developed, the Ohio program will cover grades K-12.

The primary aim of the Ohio program is to increase the student's ability to understand the causes and consequences of human behavior--why people do what they do and why some people choose to abuse drugs. Its developers believe that teaching students about drugs and the dangers of abuse is not enough.

Fear Tactics Are Not Efficient

The teacher's manual for the Ohio program notes that some drug education programs are aimed at totally stopping the use of drugs. The manual says this approach, which usually attempts to rely on fear and/or punishment to stop drug use, is "deficient" for the following reasons:

- Seldom can fear be effectively constrained to only one specific area of experience (e.g. drug use). Scare techniques may produce generalized anxiety on the personality. This anxiety often gives rise to other psychological behavioral problems.

- Fear techniques sometime include the use of exaggeration of facts or outright misrepresentation. The drug abuser can often spot these distortions--and the result is a credibility gap between the giver and receiver of the information.

- While the method selected by the abuser may be inappropriate and ineffective, it must be seen as the attempt of a human individual trying to solve a human problem. To simply inhibit his behavior, through fear, without spending equal or even greater effort toward effective alternatives only increases the frustration level of the person. This in turn decreases significantly the probability of his selecting an effective alternative. Often the individual fails to discover an alternative and "explodes" into the undesired activity in a sudden rush of emotion.

Federal officials support such philosophy. Helen Nowlis, director of USOE's Drug Education Program, has said that "the real problem is not drugs but people who use drugs. It is increasingly evident," she said, "that people with problems--personal, social, intellectual--use drugs, and it is the individual with his reasons for using drugs that is the key to understanding drug use."

Ms. Nowlis stresses that the "task is thus to educate not about the 'evils' of heroin, marijuana, LSD and their dangers, but about people, about chemicals and how they interact with people, about social control, about the positive and negative consequences of drug use for the individual and for society to the extent that we know, rather than imagine them. We must help young people make informed decisions on the basis of broad, general principles."

In line with these ideas, the creators of the Ohio program believe that to prevent the development of "abuse" behavior and to promote the growth of constructive behavior, students and teachers must learn to understand:

1. The nature of the tasks life presents

2. The nature of frustrations

3. Differences between constructive and nonconstructive methods of resolving frustrations.

The Tasks at Each Level of Schooling

The Ohio drug education program begins in the primary grades. At this level, the pupil learns what is meant by keeping his physical, social and personal surroundings in balance so they will help him and other people to live and grow. He learns how his curiosity to explore strange substances can be used to upset this balance and to injure him. For example, a child can put something unfamiliar in his mouth which can turn out to be a poison. He learns how his curiosity can be used in helpful ways to find out about the strange substances he encounters in his daily activities.

The elementary student learns about the nature and origin of some of the frustrations which children of his age commonly meet. And he is helped to understand what he can do when faced with frustrations he cannot handle.

At the junior and senior high school levels, the program seeks to expand the students' knowledge of the long-term effects of various drugs. It also deals with alternatives students can use to meet their desire for self-respect, a feeling of personal worth, the need to be loved and the need to be successful. Gradually the student is expected to recognize that these desires or "personality demands," which are fulfilled by turning to drugs, can be met in other ways.

As a student moves toward maturity, he confronts the larger issue of what he wants to do with his life. To assist with this task, the program is designed to help the student examine the contributions of moral philosophies. The program's developers believe that as a student clarifies his life

purposes, and as he learns to examine alternative ways of meeting daily tasks, he will become more capable of handling daily situations constructively. The developers stress that students are encouraged to work things out for themselves without the values superimposed by others.

Contributing to the education of the student are resources drawn from anthropology, physiology, history, philosophy, sociology and psychology. The key to the entire educational effort, its developers say, is not expensive equipment and technology, but training teachers to adopt a humane approach to human behavior. The developers stress that teachers must be trained to have open, supportive, understanding relationships with their students. Relationships that rely on arbitrary judgments and prejudice must be eliminated.

The Materials Have Been Tested

The junior high and high school materials for the Ohio Developmental Drug Education Project are available from the Educational Research Council of America (Rockefeller Building, Cleveland, Ohio 44113). The teachers' manual sells for about $2; the student book, for about $1. The elementary materials, which were field tested in six Ohio cities in 1971-72, are scheduled to be available late in 1972. The junior high materials--the first to be developed--were field tested in two schools in 1970-71. The high school materials were field tested in one school in 1970-71 and in Dayton, Toledo, Lima and Aurora in 1971-72.

Results from the field testing have been encouraging, according to Eddie E. Myers, senior research associate at the Council. At the junior high level, students in the program showed a significant increase in knowledge of drugs and of human behavior and improved attitudes about particular drugs. Other attitudes were not changed by the program.

At the high school level there was a significant increase in drug knowledge and in improved attitudes about drug use and abuse. For example, the students in the program were more aware of the potential of abusing legal drugs and showed more concern for others than students in the control group. However, there was not a significant increase in the participating students' knowledge of human behavior concepts.

Overall, teachers in the pilot programs have also been enthusiastic about the Ohio project's materials, the developers say, and have commented that the benefits of the program have carried over into the rest of the school day. In short, the developers believe their program is unique--because of its concern for the human individual and his selection of ways for more effective living--and that it can be influential in creating "a more fully functioning, autonomous individual."

WHERE TO GO OR WRITE FOR RESOURCES

School districts which need information and materials on drug education can turn to several sources in addition to USOE's Drug Education Program. (USOE, 414 Reporters Bldg., 300 6th St. SW, Washington, D.C.; 202/755-7467.)

The National Clearinghouse for Drug Abuse Information was established by the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) two years ago to act as a federal focal point for drug abuse education. It is described by Bertram Brown, NIMH director, as a "one-stop store of information which must be put in the hands of parents, students, teachers, law enforcement officers, community leaders and all citizens concerned with the problem." (5600 Fishers Lane, Room 8C09, Rockville, Md. 20852; 301/443-4443.)

The National Coordinating Council on Drug Education is a private, non-profit organization founded in 1969. It provides information and materials on drug education. (1211 Connecticut Ave. NW, Suite 212, Washington, D.C. 20036; 202/466-8150.)

The Drug Abuse Council was founded by four national foundations early in 1972 as an independent source of information and research on drug education. The council's chairman, Bethuel Webster, has said that this new clearinghouse is essential because "hundreds of organizations are going in different directions on drug abuse education, treatment or control with inadequate information and unsatisfactory measurement and communication of results." The council is funded by the Ford Foundation, the Carnegie Corp., the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation and the Commonwealth Fund. (1828 L St. NW, Washington, D.C. 20036; 202/785-5200.)

The National Drug Abuse Training Center, at Marjorie Webster Junior College, Washington, D.C. 20012. The center, which was established by the President's Special Action Office for Drug Abuse Prevention, was mandated by the Drug Abuse Office and Prevention Act of 1972, has a first-year budget of $2.8 million, provided by USOE, NIMH and the Office of Economic Opportunity.

The national center's activities are concentrated in five areas:

1. The development of educational drug prevention materials.

2. Courses designed especially for decision makers that will attempt to give politicians, civic leaders and others enough information about the drug scene so that they can make reasonable decisions on drug-related issues.

3. A specialized training section will attempt to develop a structure for training Ph.D. candidates in drug education. This section will also conduct one to three month programs for university colleges of education aimed at including drug education in teacher training programs.

4. A "core" section will attempt to broaden the knowledge of persons already working in the drug field, from prevention to treatment. Teachers, citizens and others who qualify may spend a week to three weeks at the center studying various aspects of drug abuse prevention.

5. The development of a training design for treatment is planned using persons already active in drug treatment programs.

TRAINING AND SUPPORT CENTERS FOR DRUG EDUCATION
SET UP BY THE U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION

REGION I--Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, upstate New York.

Robert C. Tucker, director, Yale U. School of Medicine, New Haven, Conn. 203/436-0010.

REGION II--New York City, downstate New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio.

Gerald Edwards, director, Adelphi U., Garden City, N.Y. 516/294-8700.

REGION III--Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee.

Marjorie Webster Junior College, Washington, D.C. 20012. 202/882-4400. This center also has a number of national training responsibilities in addition to training local teams.

REGION IV--North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Florida, Puerto Rico.

L. Thomas Carroll, director, U. of Miami, Coral Gables, Fla. 305/358-1187.

REGION V--Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri.

Audrey R. Holliday, director, U. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 312/955-9800.

REGION VI--Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Montana, Wyoming, Idaho

Charles R. Bruning, director, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. 612/373-2244.

REGION VII--Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Colorado, Utah, Arizona.

James D. Kazen, director, Trinity U., San Antonio, Tex. 512/696-6411.

REGION VIII--Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Alaska, Hawaii.

Sanford J. Feinglass, director, San Francisco Friends of Psychiatric Research and Training, Oakland, Calif. 415/582-4241.

Washington *Memo

New Strategies for Improving School Food Services

CAPSULE: While Congressional committees are studying ways to provide more food and better nutrition for more of America's children, the U.S. Dept. of Agriculture (USDA) is at work on the practical problems of school food services. In this report we sum up effective food delivery techniques and new kinds of low-cost foods, and describe a sampling of workable food service management tactics. The ever-present challenge of improving nutrition education is the subject of the final section of this article.

POLITICS AND REALITIES OF SCHOOL LUNCHES

While Congress grapples with the politics of the school lunch program, USDA officials try to advance the feeding and the nutritional well-being of children--with or without benefit of new legislation.

There is no lack of legislative proposals in Congress. In May, Pres. Nixon asked Congress to approve $25 million in additional funds for feeding needy children during the summer months bringing the total funds available for the summer of 1972 to $50.5 million. He also asked Congress for an additional $19.5 million for the breakfast program bringing the total available for fiscal 1973 to $52.5 million.

Some members of Congress criticized the move as being inadequate; others said that no new Congressional action was needed--and that the Administration can feed a larger number of children during the summer with the money and authority it already has.

Back in September 1971, Sen. Hubert Humphrey (D-Minn.) introduced his Universal School Lunch program, to provide every child, regardless of his economic status, with at least one free meal a day. The bill is still before the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, with no hearing scheduled until after the 1972 elections.

Both politicians and educators make a good bit of capital from the fact that 18,500 schools in this country still have no lunch program. Most of these are without kitchen and lunchroom facilities; most are located in larger cities where students have the greatest need for regular, nourishing meals.

USDA responds this way: "Schools without lunch programs now have a better chance to start one than they've ever had before," says Gene Dickey,

FOOD FOR AMERICA'S CHILDREN

National School Lunch Program — May 1971

Schools participating	79,696
Children participating	24,700,000
Needy children receiving free and reduced-price lunches	7,300,000

School Breakfast Program

Schools participating	6,562
Children participating	922,899
Percent breakfasts served free or at reduced prices	78%

Special Milk Program

Outlets participating	94,610
Half-pints of milk	275,000,000

Special Food Service Program

Outlets participating – year-round	3,701
Children participating – year-round	149,232
Outlets participating – summer	4,088
Children participating – summer	1,025,589

Source: National Advisory Council on Child Nutrition

chief, Program Operations Branch, Child Nutrition Division, USDA. "It is a national priority, and money is available to provide lunches for needy children. Also, management companies are developing new delivery systems that can be tailored to fit individual school situations," he said.

Here's what is being done to expand USDA's school food service:

FOOD DELIVERY TECHNIQUES

"The day is gone when children must be deprived of good nutrition in their schools because of limited facilities," says USDA. "A school that wants to participate in the National School Lunch Program may use any of a number of proven approaches to delivery."

- Satellite Feeding. Schools within a school system, city or town which have adequate kitchen facilities prepare and deliver food to those without facilities. These may be bag lunches, complete hot lunches delivered in bulk hot food containers or individual insulated trays, or combination hot and cold lunches. All lunches, of course, include one-half pint of milk in accordance with the USDA's Type A meal requirements.

- Central Kitchen System. This is basically the same as satellite feeding, except that the kitchen in this case is usually designed especially for preparing meals "to go." It is usually located in a building other than a school and provides food for an entire school system. Food can be prepared and distributed in bulk, using both heated and refrigerated containers. Receiving schools sometimes have small service kitchens, or they dispense foods from movable serving carts. In some cases, lunches are delivered frozen, ready to heat. Other systems deliver food hot, ready to serve.

- Canned Lunches. This method is approved by USDA's Food and Nutrition Service for schools which have no place to prepare or serve food. Institution-size cans of meat and vegetables are bought. The meal provides all the meat and protein required for a Type A lunch. These are heated unopened on hot plates, wood burning stoves or whatever heating equipment is available. A canned fruit is usually included in the meal, which is served to children on plates or trays to be eaten at their desks. Some schools use disposable plates and cutlery to minimize work and assure adequate sanitation.

- Frozen Entrees. This method employs a commercially prepared, individual frozen meal, consisting of meat and two vegetables and/or fruits. To complete the Type A lunch requirements, the school adds bread, butter and milk. The package usually doubles as a serving tray, thus eliminating the school's need to own and wash a large number of serving utensils.

- Food Service Management Companies and Caterers. USDA regulations permit the use of private companies and caterers in the School Lunch Program. They may operate the entire program, providing meals and labor to serve them, or they may only supply the meals or parts of meals, with school personnel taking over the serving and other aspects of the program.

- Cup-Can Meals. This method is newly approved by USDA's Food and Nutrition Service for schools which have no place to prepare or serve food. Originally developed for vending machines in factories and offices, the Cup-Can, with a strip-pull lid, contains an individual serving of a main-course dish: beef stew, franks and beans, chili and beef, tuna and noodles, chicken stew, spaghetti and meat balls. Ten main-course dishes are now available in cup-cans, and more are on the way. In schools, the cans are heated in a special heating machine which costs from $175 to $400. (USDA will pay 75% of that cost for schools which show financial need.) One machine will heat from 120 to 150 cans, which are placed in it the night before and taken out, ready to eat, at lunchtime the next day. Two machines are needed for every 200 students. Larger machines, which will heat more cans at one time, are being developed.

  Some characteristics of the Cup-Can lunch are:

  1. Children eat at their desks, directly from the can. Plastic or paper utensils eliminate dishwashing.

  2. Meals are designed for children's rather than adults' tastes--e.g., the chili con carne is milder than the adult version. The meals also contain more protein than the adult version.

  3. Each can contains two ounces of cooked meat or meat alternate, and one-fourth cup of vegetables.

  4. The label states the can's contents relative to USDA's Type A school lunch requirements.

Along with the Cup-Can meal, the student may receive a Butter Biscuit, a new type of biscuit with the butter baked in. This meets the bread-and-butter requirement of the meal, without the need to serve separate slices of bread and butter. When the Cup-Can is served, along with a Butter Biscuit, a piece of fruit and a glass of milk, the full requirements of the Type A lunch are met. The entire meal costs $.50 per child.

Cup-Can meals were first used in some schools in Philadelphia and Chicago. Result: Last year, for the first time, 12,000 students in 39 Chicago inner-city schools received hot lunches. The Cup-Can approach has since spread to South Carolina, New Mexico and California.

NEW KINDS OF LOW-COST FOODS

"The search for ways of producing inexpensive, readily accepted protein products has led scientists to experiment, especially with fish products and soya," says Marion Cronan, director of Food Service and Homemaking for the Brookline (Mass.) Public Schools. "The results of their work have given us new products that are finding uses in our cafeterias."

The following meat extenders increase the protein content of foods, at a cost much lower than that of meat. They have all been approved by USDA specialists for use in Type A lunches.

- Protein-fortified macaroni products contain twice as much protein as ordinary macaroni products. They are comparable to meat in protein content. A one-ounce serving of the new high protein macaroni (or spaghetti) substitutes for one ounce of meat, but the macaroni must be served with meat or cheese.

- Textured Vegetable Protein is a useful and inexpensive meat extender. Schools can either purchase it dry, mixed with water, or already hydrated and blended with meat. It contains about the same protein as raw meat and is fortified with additional vitamins and minerals. Now available from soy processors and private label distributors, its use is limited to 30% of a meat serving and must be served with meat or other animal protein such as poultry or fish.

- Granular Protein Concentrate, another meat extender, is now available. This will provide a similar protein to Textured Vegetable Protein, but has slightly different application. Both products can save a school about 20% on meat costs, with little if any, loss in nutrition.

- The Breakfast Baked Product, a fortified fruit and grain item, has been developed to provide a nourishing breakfast for children in schools without kitchens. Each cake contains about one-third the Vitamin C content of one orange, plus 10% protein, and when taken along with eight ounces of whole milk, provide a 10- to 12-year-old child with about 10% of the recommended dietary allowance. It can be eaten at the child's desk, and substitutes for the usual bread/cereal and fruit/juice requirement.

NEW MANAGEMENT AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

When school officials decide to start a lunch program, or to extend and improve one, they are faced with a number of questions: How much of an investment should be made in setting up kitchen and cafeteria facilities? Would it be more efficient and economical to use Cup-Can lunches or to utilize a satellite operation? What kinds of kitchen equipment and kitchen arrangement will serve efficiently and economically?

To help schools with these questions, USDA has set up a new Facilities and Management Technology Branch. Specialists from this office travel around the country, examine local situations and, with their expertise, are able to help administrators select the best food delivery system, buy kitchen equipment that fits their needs, and work out staffing and supervision problems.

But these words of advice from USDA specialists are of crucial importance:

- Before you do anything, especially before you buy equipment or sign contracts, get in touch with the state director of school food service in your state department of education. That office may be able to give you the technical help you need and will discuss with you the availability of funds for your district. (For example, if you have a large proportion of needy children in your school population, USDA funds will pay up to 75% of your kitchen equipment costs.)

- If the state agency is unable to provide the specialized help you need, it will refer you to your USDA Food and Nutrition Service Regional Office. (See p. 43 for location of the office serving your area.) The regional office will either provide assistance or, if your situation has special problems, will request assistance from federal sources.

- Don't make any decision until you've considered all aspects of each possible delivery system. For example: There may be a base or central kitchen in your area, and you may be tempted to use its services. However, careful examination may reveal that the kitchen is too far from your school, making the cost of food transporation too high.

- Take a look at food delivery systems being used by other schools--particularly those in areas like yours, and with school populations similar to yours. Talk to their managers. Are they satisfied with the system? What are the problems? What food delivery system best suits your situation?

Publications To Help School Nutrition Staffs

Three basic publications for school food managers and supervisors:

PA-270. Food Buying Guide for Type A School Lunches. Revised 1972. $3.

PA-631. Quantity Recipes for Type A School Lunches (a card file). 1971. $8.

FNS-7. A Menu Planning Guide for Breakfast at School. 1968.

Single copies are available free only to schools participating in the National School Lunch Program. Send request to your State School Lunch Agency or to the appropriate Regional Office of the Food and Nutrition Service. Give the "PA" or "FNS" number and title of the publication desired. Additional copies of these publications may be purchased from the Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 at the prices indicated. Check or money order should be made payable to the Supt. of Documents.

Three publications of general information:

PA-19. National School Lunch Program. Revised 1971.

PA-667. USDA's Food Donation Programs. Revised 1970.

PA-948. Child Nutrition Programs. Revised 1971.

These are available free, but limited as to use, for college and high school classes and for PTA and other community group meetings. Send requests to Information Division, Food and Nutrition Service, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250.

NUTRITION EDUCATION: WHAT SCHOOLS ARE DOING

In view of the changes in American food practices, the need for nutrition education is of increasing concern. The National Advisory Council on Child Nutrition, in its first annual report (1971) to the Congress, recommended that:

- Nutrition education receive greater attention at the elementary and secondary levels.

- Nutrition education should be a curriculum component at all levels.

The need for nutrition education, says the Council, is shown in studies which reveal increasing inadequacies in the diets of Americans, and the continuing unfamiliarity of the public with basic nutritional concepts.

THE LUNCHROOM: LAB FOR NUTRITION EDUCATION

Some school systems have used their school lunch programs as starting points for nutrition education. Some examples.

- Sing a song of spinach! Children at the Schulze Elementary School in Irving, Tex., learn about nutrition in their music class. It began when the school superintendent and the food service director expressed concern that pupils were not sufficiently aware of the importance of proper diet. Because the music teacher instructs every child in the school, she was asked to weave nutrition concepts into her teaching. Finding few songs available pertaining to food and health, Margaret Gooding wrote her own. They are popular with the children. When children encounter a word like cholesterol, which they don't understand, they stop the music and disucss what it means and how it effects their health and diet.

- Some schools are combating teen-age malnutrition by involving students in menu planning. Such involvement impresses upon students facts about calorie content and nutritional value of the foods they eat. "If the young people are more involved," says psychologist Joyce Brothers of this approach, "it becomes less of an adult idea."

- In the lunchroom at Lake Alfred (Fla.) Junior High, the manager gives students opportunities to taste unfamiliar fruits and vegetables arranged on a "tasting tray." The manager also stresses the nutritional value of these foods and their importance to health. During tours of the school lunch facilities, students discuss the planning and cost of menus, purchasing of food, importance of proper food storage and preparation and sanitation. As one student observed, "There's more to school lunch than just cookin'!"

- School lunch room personnel at Lewis Elementary School in Fort Meade, Fla., have found that children's favorite cartoon characters do a good job of promoting the value of vitamins in foods. Posters of Lucy shouting, "Eat your cole slaw, kids. It's loaded with Vitamin C!"

are placed in the lunchroom. One poster showed Lucy asking Charlie Brown if he knew milk contained riboflavin. Questions flew as students, and teachers too, sought more information during School Lunch Week. Each grade planned a lunch menu. These were served during the week.

- Problem: a decrease in student participation in the school lunch program at Claude A. Taylor Elementary School in Lexington County, S.C. Reason? Students said they disliked the menus. Solution: the county lunchroom supervisor helped fifth-graders to plan menus they said they would like. At first, the children included foods that were expensive, or that did not provide a balanced meal. The supervisor helped them work through those problems. Participation soon went up, and eventually all children in the school took part in menu planning. The principal commented: "Educators know that the way for students to learn is by doing, and learn they did. They helped prepare the menu, and later ate what they had a hand in preparing."

- A Nutrition Enrichment Program is under way in the classrooms of Kershaw County, S.C. Its goals: to increase knowledge of and interest in nutrition education in the public schools, to promote student participation in the lunch program, and to reduce food waste. Teachers use films on nutrition, distribute nutrition coloring books to pupils in grades 1-3, and a Guide to Nutrition booklet to grades 4 and 5. Community volunteers work with the students. The program was so successful when tested in the Camden, S.C., schools that it was offered to all schools in the county.

- The "Classateria," a nutrition education effort at St. Genevieve, a parochial school in Lafayette, La., has resulted in 100% participation in the lunch program. "It is blessed," says a report, "with a lunchroom manager who loves her work and every one of her students."

- Can USDA-donated foods be made acceptable to children who are accustomed to eating frijoles, tortillas and enchiladas? The only way that hot, low-priced and free lunches could be provided for the students in the border town of Nogales, Ariz., was with USDA foods. So school personnel set out to develop student acceptance of the new foods. Six months before the lunch program began, they organized an information campaign aimed at parents and children. Parent meetings were held. Free lunch applications were sent home, along with Spanish-English explanatory materials. The principal made personal visits to nearly 100 families to explain the program. At school, the children drew pictures of foods and saw colored slides of the four food groups. Some classes visited the kitchens to see where and how the meals would be prepared. When the program began, teachers and teacher aides spent much of their lunch hour encouraging the children to at least try the new foods. The success of the new lunch program exceeded all expectations. "Some people said these kids would never go for this food," said the lunch manager. "But they gobble it up." Since the lunch program, school attendance has gone up and the children are observed to be more energetic.

Food and Nutrition Service

Regional Offices of the U.S. Department of Agriculture

Office	States Served
Food and Nutrition Service USDA 26 Federal Plaza New York, N.Y. 10007	Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, District of Columbia
Food and Nutrition Service USDA 536 South Clark St. Chicago, Ill. 60605	Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, South Dakota, North Dakota
Food and Nutrition Service USDA 1100 Spring St. NW Atlanta, Ga. 30309	Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands
Food and Nutrition Service USDA 1100 Commerce St. Dallas, Tex. 75202	Texas, Louisiana, Arkansas, Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, New Mexico
Food and Nutrition Service USDA 630 Sansome St. San Francisco, Calif. 94111	California, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Alaska, Hawaii

- "Getting students involved" is one secret of the success of Tom Farley, director of the Milwaukee, Wis., school food service system. Each year, his division works with an inter-high student council lunch committee in seven sessions of tours, taste testing, critiques and menu planning. A tip from Farley: he cuts costs by eliminating a la carte meals. He serves only the Type A lunch to 60,000 pupils a day in over 140 schools. He thanks his student committee for the acceptability of the standardized lunch program. Says Farley: "If you rap with kids on what they want, make sure before you start that it's not just a put-on to explain complaints or to justify cozy habits."

Washington Refresher *Course

Short Course in Federal Aid Grantsmanship

CAPSULE: The federal dollar authorized and appropriated for local school district use, often seems elusive, almost impossible to get. Complexities of regulations, limitations, guidelines--as well as competition--add to the problem. But often the local educator himself is partly to blame as he loses his direction and his sense of humor in the tangle of proposal preparation. Below is a 15-minute refresher course that may help sharpen your skills in grantsmanship. It was prepared by Russell A. Working, executive director, State and Federal Programs, Toledo Public Schools, Toledo, Ohio.

Getting your share of the federal dollar calls for the application of effort, time, common sense and a knowledge of the rules and guidelines established by federal law--in short, working through a game plan.

It may appear to the novice in federal grantsmanship that the rules of the game are ambiguous, restricting and all too time-consuming. And, indeed, at first they seem to be so.

But mastering the skills of grantsmanship is worth the effort. What school district, large or small, rural or urban, cannot use additional monies to improve its programs through research and demonstration projects or through supplementary services and activities?

Skills in Grantsmanship

Fewer federal dollars have found their way to the smaller school district or to the rural district than to urban and suburban districts. One reason for this disparity is grantsmanship. Suburban and urban schools often have personnel who are charged with full-time assignments that require them to learn the grantsmanship game. Two comments must be made here:

- An aggressive approach to grantsmanship does not require that the school district designate a full-time person to seek federal funds. Part-time and cooperative efforts to seek federal funds often serve to strengthen the leadership ability of the local participating staff. Of course, this potential is given a shot in the arm if the proposal is funded.

- Grantsmanship skills are not that complex. They are, in fact, equivalent to common sense. They can be learned by reorganizing and sharpening

what a good educator already knows. Grantsmanship puts to work the rules of public relations, staff involvement and commitment, disciplined thinking and a respect for accountability.

Orientation to Proposal Development

Basically, it does not matter whether the school district is considering developing a proposal for allocated or discretionary funds in terms of the process you must go through to bring that proposal to its final form. The school district is more certain to receive the allocated funds because these funds, e.g., ESEA Title I and II, are earmarked for eligible districts on a formula basis. Discretionary funds are significantly different. These are monies for which the school district must compete and the quality, orientation and scope of the proposal is more crucial. Irrespective of the differences between these two types of funding sources the procedures for developing proposals are very similar.

Getting Organized

Proposal planning and development is not recommended as a one-man operation. True, one person should be assigned the task of coordinating the effort and others under him should be given specific, identified tasks that mesh with others carried out by other staff members. But under no instance is it suggested that the superintendent or a member on the staff attempt to develop a one-man proposal. Share the load. One-man proposals quite often turn out to be "thin" and do not reflect the needs and purposes of a school district. This becomes quickly apparent to the federal authorities. The result is a reduced possibility of being funded. But even if funded, one-man proposals meet substantial resistance in the implementing stages. People who are to implement programs should be involved in their planning from the very beginning.

Secure from your Congressman copies of the laws and the amendments that govern the federal funding sources to which you consider making application. Use also (1) your state department of education, (2) your regional commissioner of education, and (3) officials in Washington. The Winter 1972 and Spring 1972 issues of the FEDERAL AID PLANNER give names and addresses of federal staff members who can be helpful on specific programs.

Assign someone the task of ordering copies of U.S. regulations and federal or state guidelines for those program areas in which you have an interest. These documents are more specific than the basic laws concerning who is eligible, the procedures for making application, when you may apply and to whom, and the funding limits within which you can apply.

Organize a steering committee comprised of administrators, teachers and community members. What should be its tasks? One thing is clear: it should not write the proposal. Committees should not attempt to write proposals. They can set goals, provide direction and review. But don't expect a committee to do the writing. The steering committee will guide the proposal planning through a number of significant tasks, including:

- needs assessment
- problem identification
- identified alternative solutions
- program priority specification
- proposal development

You will hear bureaucrats--federal, state and local--say such things as, "You must first identify the educational needs in your school district before you even consider applying for funds." There is, of course, more than a little truth to this, but it is not that easily accomplished. There needs to be some reasonable blend between the perceived needs of teachers, students and community and the needs that can be inferred from objective data such as achievement indicators, drop-out rates, numbers of students going on to training beyond high school, attendance rates. Making determinations from these data to establish program priorities is essential. Don't try to sidestep this important first stage in proposal development. You must be prepared to document the underlying needs to justify your proposal. The needs assessment presents to the proposal reviewers the degree to which you know the current status of your school district and, equally important, what direction you want to go. Don't allow yourself to use educational platitudes. Be specific about where your school system stands. Candor is rewarding.

While assessment is proceeding at the local level, cast your eyes about at the state and national levels. Call or write key people. Find out what the national priorities are. The extent that you can reasonably relate your needs to national priorities is the extent to which your proposal may be a turnkey for you. Such obvious tactics are helpful and certainly opportunistic. A word of caution: don't force your identified educational needs in a contrived way to correlate with the national needs. Do keep in mind, however, that the federal government is looking for local school districts who can serve as partners in the pursuit of solutions to mutual problems.

Identify Your Resources

Your greatest resource is in your staff and the community. You may need to rebuild your contacts and strengthen the cooperative spirit among the people around you, if you have not routinely relied on staff and community input in the planning. But if you are convinced of the importance of what federal dollars can do to benefit all those involved, then you have the necessary fuel to stir them into constructive action. Your plan will be better for all of this effort. The formula goes something like this:

$$\begin{matrix}\text{Administration}\\ + \\ \text{Teachers}\\ + \\ \text{Community}\end{matrix} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Knowledge of school}\\ \text{problems and needs}\end{matrix}\right. + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Consensus}\\ \text{on goals}\end{matrix}\right. + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Plan of action}\\ \text{to meet goals}\end{matrix}\right.$$

Before you reach out for assistance from consultants from nearby colleges and universities, or from private consulting firms, do your homework. Know what you expect from consultants that will permit you and your staff to proceed with clarity and understanding. It is inappropriate to delegate pro-

posal writing to outside individuals or groups. The real value of having your staff assume the responsibility is that it "pulls" the staff together and generates a much stronger commitment on the part of the staff to the proposal. This commitment has real payoff during the implementation period.

There is much to be gained by establishing "inside" contacts with your state education agency and at the federal level. Staff members within these organizations not only can be very helpful, they want to be! They do want to react to specific or general program plans. They are not enthusiastic, however, about "fishing expeditions," in which there is an aimless conversational wandering among "possible" projects.

There is one important additional resource: research findings. For some reason educators tend to shy away from doing this part of their homework in proposal writing. When the program priority has been selected, a review of the literature and research studies will be of inestimable value to the proposal designers--those who make preliminary decisions about how the program is to be organized and how it will operate. The program design team is, under optimal conditions, a sub-group of the steering committee. ERIC (Educational Research Information Clearing-House) represents one of many helpful sources for the design team in their search for appropriate and current research findings. Make sure the proposal design team covers the research resources thoroughly.

Writing the Proposal

When the design team has cleared its project recommendations through the steering committee, a proposal writer, who has been selected earlier and who has participated in the planning sessions, can be asked to prepare an initial draft for committee review. What does the draft proposal include? That varies with the funding source. They practically all have different proposal formats and application forms. But the writer's job is not to create the Great American Novel.

While significant differences do exist among acceptable proposal formats from one program funding source to another, there are some similarities which include:

- Justification for the proposal: Why should the proposal be funded? What are the specific needs that are to be met by the proposal? What are the target populations that are to receive the services? How long has the problem existed? What has already been done about it? What is the likelihood of success?

- Specific objectives that are to be achieved as a result of the project: What is to be changed (behavior), over how long a period, and according to what measurement indicators?

- Detailed operational procedures: How will participants be selected? How will the program be conducted and for how long? What kinds of facilities and supplies are needed? What are staffing requirements? Are consultants to be employed--if so, who, and for what purpose?

- Adequate evaluation design: Using the objectives as indicators of desired ends, what evaluation techniques are to be used? Who will administer them, and when?

If time permits, it would be helpful to have the proposal read by others not involved in its design or writing to see if it meets an essential criterion: Does the proposal say to others what you want it to say?

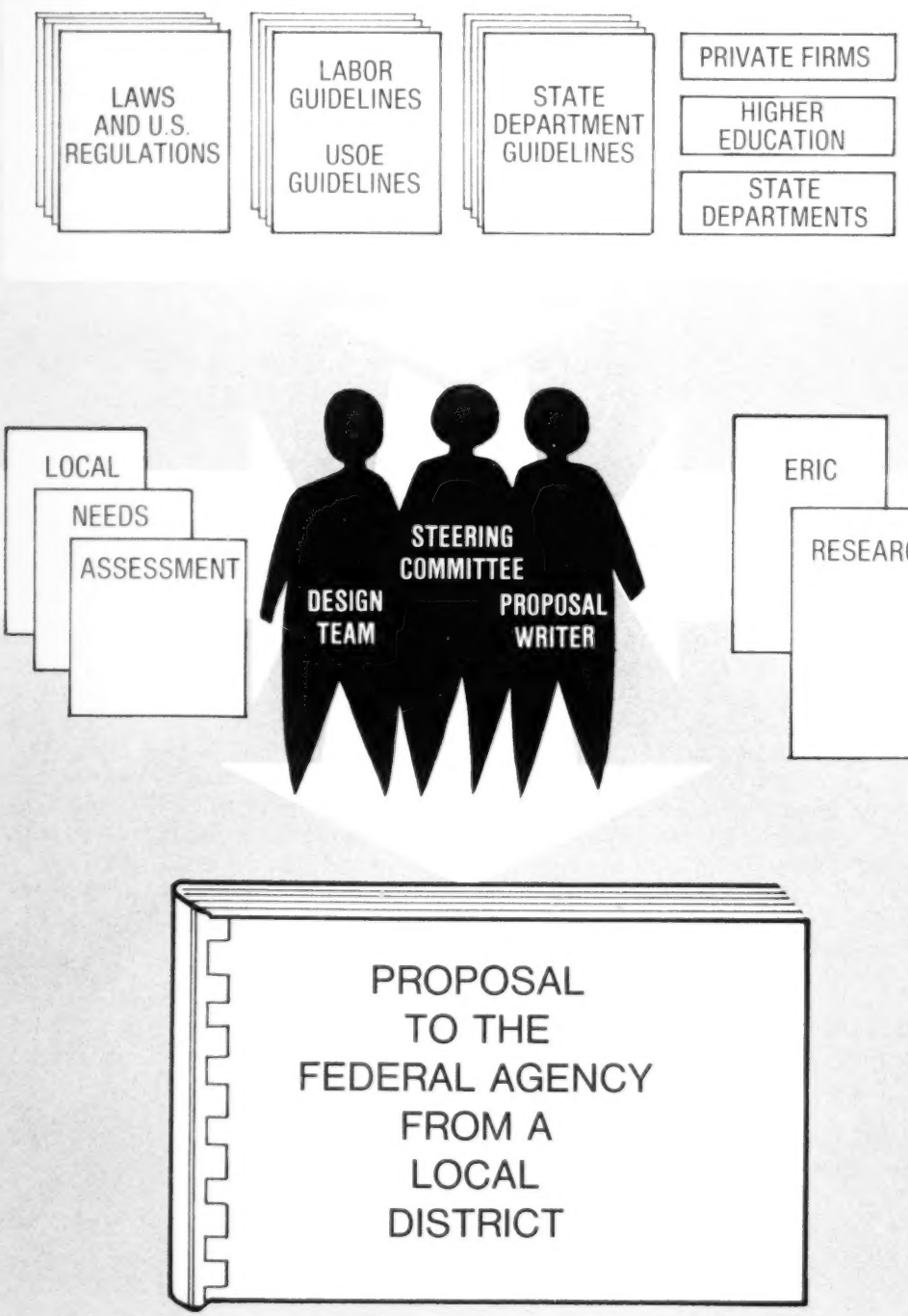
The local board of education should be kept informed about the progress of the proposal. But now comes the point when the board must review and accept the proposal before it is officially submitted, either to the state education agency or the federal office. An assurance of support for the proposal from the top to the bottom of a school district is not only highly desirable but also mandatory if the proposal is viewed as a means of bringing about controlled change.

A Summary of Helpful Hints

Securing the elusive federal dollars will be easier, if these suggestions are followed:

1. Read and reread the guidelines.
2. Share the task of researching the basis for the proposal.
3. Reach out for community participation in proposal planning.
4. Be sensitive to state and national priorities.
5. Do a thorough job of needs assessment.
6. Research the proposal topic well.
7. Seek expert advice as you need it.
8. Be your own proposal manager.
9. Try to build the proposed program into the school system as an integral part, not separate and detached.
10. Secure top-to-bottom support for the proposal before it is submitted.
11. Set schedules for yourself and your staff. Meet your deadlines.
12. Use your staff according to their capabilities. Assign jobs to people who can do them.
13. Seek advice and counsel from state and federal agencies--get to know "key" staff members.
14. Eliminate education jargon--and avoid the emotional appeal.
15. Submit a project that you can manage. Don't try to do too much.
16. Have confidence. You and your staff can do it.

DEVELOPING A PROPOSAL FOR A U.S. GRANT



Washington *Background

Cable TV: What Schools Can Do and How They'll Benefit

CAPSULE: School authorities need not necessarily master the engineering phase of cable television, but they must grasp the legal and educational implications of what has been called the medium that can affect education for the next several decades. In this report we sketch the potentials of cable TV; what the new Federal Communications Commission rulings mean to schools and communities; and why now is a time for action by educators. What the schoolman can do to protect the future educational interests of all the people is outlined in brief but systematic order.

THE MAGIC THAT HUMS ON THE WIRES

Most educators don't know what to make of cable television. They may know there are places like Reading, Pa.; San Diego; Shawnee Mission, Kan.; and St. Cloud, Minn., where schools have been "on the cable" for years. And they probably have read the "gee-whiz" promises of what the technology, if fully utilized, could deliver. Futuristic stuff. Like being able to receive as many as 40 different channels. Like having all the home TV sets in the city tied in with a computer, a telephone and a copier so that a homebound student could both receive his lessons and transmit the answers over the air. Like being able to link clusters of schools so that pupils could watch other pupils in live performances of plays, concerts or debates. Like being able to offer high school equivalency courses and vocational education to the public at home, with multiple choices of programs available at any one time. Like holding an instantaneous opinion poll over the air, where parents punch a button to register their views on school programs. Not to mention other marvels like being able to pay bills, shop, bank, even show the doctor where it hurts without leaving home.

It all sounds like an educational "5,000-Foot-Shelf" and too good to be true. Besides, most educators are aware that for years there has been a running battle between cable owners, commercial broadcasters, and copyright owners over how far and how fast cable systems should be allowed to develop.

Technology can deliver on all those promises. And the legal, political and economic battles of the vested interests were essentially resolved in March 1972 when the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) issued its long-awaited rulings with the avowed purpose of getting cable TV moving. With the logjam broken, hundreds of cable franchises will be awarded in cities across the nation in the next couple of years--franchises that will determine

the character of cable communications for years--and the question is whether educators will move quickly and wisely to get their share of this communications bonanza that could revolutionize learning. If the educator's voice is not heard now, he may lose his opportunity for many years.

What Is Cable TV?

Cable Television, formerly called Community Antenna Television (CATV), was invented in the mountains of Pennsylvania when an imaginative entrepreneur erected towers so that he could hawk Philadelphia TV signals to his pastoral neighbors in the valley who were deprived of reception. (A similar development took place in the mountains of Oregon about the same time.) Thus began the system for bringing TV pictures directly to the television set over a shielded wire (coaxial cable) instead of through the air via an antenna, and for providing a large number of additional channels for other purposes.

Cable TV has three advantages over broadcast TV:

- TV offerings from outside a community's receiving range can be imported to cable subscribers, thereby increasing their program options. Also, because Cable TV does not consume "on air" channels of the crowded Very High Frequency (VHF) and Ultra High Frequency (UHF) spectrum, a locality can have up to 40 or more channels for a wide variety of services.

- Cable provides opportunity for two-way communications (audio and video in both directions) which would, for example, allow students at one end to talk to the teacher at the other, or citizens at home to participate in a school board or other civic meeting.

- With cable, the viewer is able to receive a universally good, clear television picture with a minimum of interference, especially for color.

- Cable makes possible "do-it-yourself" television; that is, it creates many opportunities for locally orginating programs.

To install a cable system, a community must be wired in a way similar to the stringing of telephone wires on poles or in underground conduits. The cable operator receives TV signals through a master antenna or "head end" situated at a point where there is no interference. He can originate local material in his own studios. Main trunk lines are installed along each street in the community, and cable "drops" enter each home and each school that is to be wired for the service. An installation fee of about $15 to $25 is charged for the drop. In all cable communities, a monthly subscription fee is charged each home wired into the system, and this is where the cable operator makes his money--not from advertising. About $5 a month is the usual subscription fee.

Currently there are about 2,600 cable systems in the United States, reaching about 5.3 million homes and perhaps 18 million viewers. It is estimated that approximately 2,200 new franchises have been issued, and there are 2,000 applications pending before local governments. Pennsylvania has the most systems: 282. Connecticut is the only state with none, but the

construction of 2 or 3 new systems there has been authorized. The average system has 2,000 subscribers; the largest--San Diego--has 47,000. Some have fewer than 100 subscribers. More than 400 cable systems now have the capacity of originating programs, and nearly 300 do so on a regularly scheduled basis--an average of 16 hours per week. Almost 800 have the capacity for providing such automated originations as time and weather services and stock reports.

About 50% of the cable industry is owned by other communications interests. Broadcasters account for 36%; newspaper publishers for 8%; and telephone companies for 6%. The CATV industry had total subscriber revenues in 1970 estimated at $300 million.

The potential is staggering. The industry is expected to generate $4.4 billion in income by 1980. By the end of the century, practically all television--local and national--will be provided by cable, and at $5 per home who can guess what the profits will be? This is why some people, like communications expert Fred W. Friendly, fear that cable TV, which offers the greatest potential for education and public service in all communications history, may be "sold down the river" to strictly mercantile interests. Already, Friendly says, many city fathers "have bargained away the family jewels" by awarding franchises without insisting that operators provide adequately for public service and education.

The FCC Rulings

In regulations which became effective March 1972, the FCC laid down minimum federal standards, but left control over the development of cable systems to local and state governments. The terms of the franchise and the selection of the franchisee are to be determined by local or municipal authorities. No new cable system will be permitted to begin operation, however, unless it has received from FCC a "certificate of compliance," and no existing system may continue to operate beyond March 31, 1977, or the end of its current franchise, whichever comes first, without obtaining such a certificate.

The Commission ruled that the local and municipal franchising authority must issue a public invitation to all who might want to compete for a local franchise, that all bids must be placed on public file and reasonable notice given, that at least one public hearing must be held to afford all interested persons an opportunity to testify on the merits or demerits of the various applicants, and, finally, that the franchising authority must release a public report setting forth the basis of its action.

In applying for a certificate of compliance, the potential cable owner must give direct notice to local franchising authorities, local television stations, the superintendent of schools in the community, and local educational and television authorities. The Commission itself will issue public notice of all applications for certificates of compliance, and objections to proposed cable service must be made within 30 days after this notice.

The new rulings also require that every new cable system in the top 100 TV market areas must provide one cable TV channel free for five years

to education, one for local government use, and one for public access (the so-called "soapbox" channel where any citizen can air his views). Rulings also require a cable operator to provide two-way (feedback) capability in newly constructed systems for at least non-voice transmission purposes.

What the FCC Ruling Achieved

The issues that had stalled cable development in the bigger cities--copyright and the importation of distant signals--were settled in the new rules. The new rules represent a compromise between broadcasters, copyright owners, and cable operators, allowing importation of two "distant" signals from nearby markets, and leaving it up to cable operators to negotiate some form of compensation to copyright owners.

Reaction to the compromise was mixed. FCC Commissioner Nicholas Johnson called it "blackmail, a sellout, a sweetheart deal forced by the powerful broadcast industry." FCC Commissioner Robert T. Bartley wrote that "the largest broadcast stations and representatives of the copyright owners have again succeeded in preventing the development of cable in most of the largest markets, thus depriving receiving set owners of the opportunity to subscribe, if they wish, to enjoy clearer reception and additional services."

But knowledgeable educators have long maintained that the hassle over the distant signal problem was a struggle of vested interests and not the most critical cable TV issue before the country. Publi Cable, a consortium of individuals representing educational and public service groups, states that the crucial matter concerns access and allocation of channels for education and public service.

FCC "failed the public interest in its March rulings," said Publi Cable, in requiring only one education, one governmental and one public access channel to a system--especially when new systems to be built must have 20 channels; 40 will be practicable in a very short time; one 64-channel urban system is already under construction; and beyond that, some experts project systems that could run into the hundreds of channels. NEA's position is that a minimum of 20% of the capacity of each cable TV system should be set aside for education and public service purposes, so that community use of cable can grow along with the industry.

On the other hand, Publi Cable Chairman Harold E. Wigren says, the FCC has brought some semblance of order in a chaotic situation. Prior to the regulations, he says, every community was going it alone; franchises were being awarded right and left. Out-of-state conglomerates were getting into the local act. Wigren says there is an appropriate role for each level of government:

- The federal government should set minimum standards to secure the public interest in cable communications and ensure that local people are involved in franchising and operation of the system.

- The state government should handle those public interest considerations that transcend community and municipal boundaries (e.g., interconnection

of cable systems) and possibly develop standards above and beyond those set by FCC.

- The local government should ensure maximum citizen involvement in the awarding operation of franchises. Service rates, he says, should be set by the local government and reviewed by at least one other level, either state or federal.

What Should the Schoolman Do Now?

The basic conditions have been set, and the rush of private owners to acquire cable franchises will now be on. As Friendly puts it, "The people on Wall Street are salivating over a new glamor industry to peddle."

Experts estimate there are some 15,000 centers where cable TV systems will be feasible. Of these, 2,600 are already covered by franchises. If you live in one of the 12,400 where action is still to be taken, what can you do?

The first thing is to make sure your community has a municipal ordinance that sets forth the ground rules under which any cable TV system will be required to operate and establishes the minimum standards which any system must meet.

As Friendly indicated, some mayors and city councils of the past were so anxious to get cable TV revenues into the local coffers, they didn't even think of educational and public services. They granted franchises for overlong periods of time with no provision for review and revision, thus saddling their citizens for years with skimpy service.

In fairness, it should be pointed out, however, that many cable operators <u>have</u> shown concern for community needs, and in smaller communities it has not been uncommon for schools to be wired into the cable. A cooperative cable owner, who valued the goodwill of school and community, might have a channel or two left over above his strictly commercial needs. He might lend them to the schools or supply them at low cost, at least to those schools that were close to his cable. But all this depends upon mutual goodwill and negotiations with the operator.

It is a fact of political life that the educator's needs are more likely to be met if he can define them for the city council and have them incorporated in the ordinance and in the terms of the franchise before bids are received. Once the franchise is granted, the schools have little or no bargaining power and must come as supplicants for what they might have had the council define as a requirement.

The best weapon of franchise operators or bidders who don't want to provide much in the way of educational facilities, says Fred T. Wilhelms, is to argue that schools seldom do much anyway, even if the facilities are open to them. And adds Wilhelms, senior associate, Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development, "Our record (as educators) as a whole is pretty bad."

How can you convince the city fathers and the franchise bidder that you can and will utilize the requested channels?

You can show them you have developed a long-range plan to use additional channels (it would be unfair to other users to reserve the channels and then sit on them). You can also show that you have:

- Employed necessary supporting staff (TV teachers, graphic artists, studio personnel) to ensure high caliber productions.
- Planned for community services, including programs for special audiences --preschoolers, adults, the handicapped.
- Purchased adequate receiving equipment (TV receivers) and a cable distribution system for each school so that programs can be received adequately in each classroom (wiring classrooms usually averages approximately $100 per room).
- Established a studio for origination of programs.
- Provided inservice workshop opportunities for teachers in using TV in the classroom and for training studio teachers new to the ways of television.
- Created a "braintrust" to generate new formats and innovative approaches for the use of television in your school district.

If you're in a community where cable TV would be economically feasible and you've done or planned these moves, you can then start stirring up public opinion, helping people to see the rich possibilities, insisting on full and open public hearings to get all the options in plain view, and playing the watchdog. Now that the FCC has mandated at least one free channel for education, you will have a five-year period in which to demonstrate that you can and will use additional facilities as they become available.

About That Ordinance

No one can say what ought to be in every municipal ordinance, but Wigren has listed major questions that ought to be considered by every community:

1. Has an allocation percentage of channels been made for public use free of charge, including provisions for educational, municipal and general public access? Have multiple channels been provided to the schools?
2. Is access to studios and equipment guaranteed to the schools and public at no charge or at a minimum fee?
3. Insofar as it relates to instructional radio and TV programs, is control of these programs vested by ordinance with local educational authorities?

4. Is there a provision in your ordinance which will require the cable operator to provide programs for specialized audiences (e.g., deaf, retirees, ethnic groups)? To the extent that it relates to your community is there a provision requiring a percentage of programs to be cablecast in appropriate local foreign languages?

5. Are there nondiscriminatory provisions in your ordinance relating employment of members of minorities and the nondiscriminatory right of access of minorities on a reasonable basis to use of your local cable system?

6. Who in your community will control access to local public and/or educational channels? Should your community have its own local cable access board? If so, should they be elected or appointed? If appointed, by whom and for how long?

The Franchise Itself

Something of enormous potential value is on the auction block in a franchise for cable television operation, and before they get the franchise, the bidders may be willing to go pretty high. As Fred Wilhelms puts it: "It is time to stop depending on gentlemen's agreements and to go for contracts that protect the public and the schools." He cites the ordinance developed by the Metropolitan Nashville Education Assn. (MNEA) as a good example of the kinds of actions essential in awarding of franchises. MNEA believes that the use of CATV channels for education is essential to preserve the public interest.

Accordingly, the MNEA urges the mayor and the Metropolitan Council to ensure that in any ordinance or franchise issued, the following minimum considerations be included:

- That not less than 25% of all CATV channels be allocated at no charge for education.

- That unlimited and unrestricted access at no charge to these channels and to studios and equipment shall be given to the appropriate local education authorities.

- That the control of instructional and educational programs over CATV systems shall rest with the appropriate local education authorities.

- That each ordinance or franchise issued shall require the grantee to install immediately between and to each CATV residence or location two-way capacity, i.e., two-way audio and one-way video in each CATV system.

- That the grantee shall at no charge install and maintain a two-way audio and two-way video capability between and to each school, hospital, police station, fire station and such other municipal building or location as the mayor and the Metropolitan Council may from time to time select.

- That applications for a CATV ordinance or franchise from nonprofit corporations be accepted and evaluated on an equal, nondiscriminatory basis.

- That no ordinance or franchise shall be issued for a period exceeding 15 years, provided, however, that at any time after two years from the effective date of the ordinance or franchise the local authority issuing the ordinance or franchise, and for as frequently as it may from time to time decide, shall conduct a public hearing to review and, if necessary, renegotiate the terms and conditions of the ordinance or franchise and to assess the record of the grantee in adhering to the terms and conditions of the ordinance or franchise.

- That no ordinance or franchise shall be issued on an exclusive basis.

If a Franchise Is Being Negotiated Now

This may be a crisis situation and you'll need to move in fast, insisting on public hearings and stopping the award of any franchise until those hearings have been held. As Wilhelms puts it: "Play for time and give public opinion a chance to consolidate behind you." A group in Suffolk County, N.Y., known as SCOPE, which has had considerable experience offers the following advice:

DO's

- Make direct personal contact with the mayor, city manager, city council members, legal counsel, etc. Discuss the matter individually with as many council members as possible.

- Make direct contact with the cable operator who is or may be a franchise applicant. You should enter a cable TV hearing in substantial accord with the cable TV franchise applicant.

- Make sure the school system presents a united front in public hearings.

- Solicit the support of influential individuals both in and outside the school community.

- See to it your cable TV requests receive good local news coverage.

- Do get expert legal guidance, so that the details of your provisos are spelled out in legal and engineering language.

DON'Ts

- Don't make unreasonable demands on the cable franchise applicant. His costs tend to be high in the beginning, so you should put a time delay into any request that will be costly to him.

- Don't allow the franchise applicant to view you as a parasite. This is a quid pro quo arrangement. Most cable operators need you as much as

you need them; however, the cable operator must know the effort and expense you will incur to implement your part of the program.

- Don't be inflexible or arbitrary in your franchise requests. Politics is the art of compromise. There is likely to be much negotiation before you are finished.

Originating Programs

The wave of the future in cable TV, as most experts see it, will be not just importing somebody else's programs, but originating your own programs for the cable system--a prospect heartily endorsed by the FCC. This is where school systems and prospective cable operators can really get together.

One example of cooperation is cited by Schools and Cable Television, a publication of the National Education Assn. (NEA): "In Grand Junction, Colo., the television studio was constructed at the expense of the cable operator, but the school district purchased $30,000 worth of origination equipment under a joint-use contract. The cable operator and the educators alike realized that a considerable investment was required to buy adequate hardware for the production of good television programing. Each party agreed that it would be more reasonable to cooperate in the use of one relatively sophisticated studio facility rather than to squander limited resources on separate inadequate efforts."

A Final Challenge

Friendly told 200 participants in a recent Publi Cable conference that cable television is now just about where the railroads were in the 1870s "when Commodore Vanderbilt immortalized himself with his cynical pronouncement." Today, Friendly continued, "the public is not damned, but rather accepted as a naive participant in the regulatory scenario." The citizens' views are solicited, even listened to, but in the final round, "it is that tug-of-war between the special interest players that prevails." Every time a city, by faulty staff work, impatience with detail or corrupt dealing, he said, "awards a flawed or flabby contract, every time a franchise is given in perpetuity or for 20 years without proper safeguards, the chance for every other community to make a decent contract is diminished."

He told conferees to immerse themselves in the decision-making process on cable in their own communities and come to the bargaining sessions "steeped in the lessons of 50 years of regulatory giveaways, armed with the spirit of the law, the facts of the technology, and the imagination to out-man those whose power comes from the mouth of their lobby and the persuasiveness of their venture capital."

If the educators and their colleagues fail, Friendly warned, they will have the experience of hearing future generations say: "Why didn't someone tell us about all this when there was still time?"

Sources for Information on Cable Television

Cable Information Service. This is a new service to church-related and secular organizations, groups, individuals. Aim is to gather and disseminate information on cable television legislation, regulation, franchising trends. The Service is available for consultation by letter, telephone interview. Publishes monthly "Cable Information" newsletter. Subscription cost: $10 per year. Rev. Franklin Mack, Director, Room 852, 475 Riverside Drive, New York City 10027. Phone: 212/870-2568.

Cable Television Information Center (CTIC), a service of the Urban Institute, Washington, D.C., has received three-year funding in grants of $3,500,000 from Ford Foundation, $500,000 from Markle Foundation. Center is to supply city and state governments with technical assistance and nonpartisan analysis of cable issues and to help avoid repetition of early franchising mistakes. W. Bowman Cutter, Director, 2100 M St., NW, Washington, D.C. 20037. Phone: 202/872-8888.

Federal Communications Commission can provide copies of laws and official regulations. Write to Dean Burch, Chairman, 1919 M St., NW, Washington, D.C. 20554. Phone: 202/655-4000.

Cable Television Bureau, FCC. This Bureau was created in January 1970 due to the rapid growth of cable TV. It is responsible for administering and enforcing cable TV rules. Sol Schildhause, Chief. Phone: 202/632-6480.

National Education Association, 1201 16th St., NW, Washington, D.C. 20036. The NEA's Division of Instruction and Professional Development is a good source of information about Cable TV. Especially useful is its publication, Schools and Cable Television. Single copy, $2.50. Order from NEA Publications Sales Section, at above address.

Office of Telecommunication Policy. The office was established in September 1970 to oversee all government activities in this field, to make recommendations and proposals to the President and to serve as the executive branch spokesman for telecommunications. Clay T. Whitehead, Director, 1800 G St., NW, Washington, D.C. 20504. Phone: 202/395-5800.

Publi-Cable, Inc., 1201 16th St., NW, Washington, D.C. 20036. Harold E. Wigren, Chairman. Phone: 202/833-4118. This organization will help community groups in promoting public interest in cable. The coalition has three state affiliates: Public Cable Coalition of California, 2718 G St., Room 9, Sacramento, Calif. 95816, Charles Vento, Director; Public Interest Cable (PIC), 1671 Summit Avenue, St. Paul, Minn. 55105, Bruce Kittelson, Director; Community Cable Television Coalition, Michigan State U., East Lansing, Mich., F. Baldwin, Director.

Washington *Resources

Treasury of Government Films

The federal government has a vast storehouse of information, training aids, art, history and social comment--all on film and tape. Until a few years ago this resource was almost inaccessible to schools because few knew what materials were available or how to obtain them.

With the establishment of the National Audiovisual Center in 1969, information about audiovisual materials became centralized, providing opportunities for teachers and administrators to use the enormous federal resources.

The National Audiovisual Center materials are for sale, and 16mm prints can be rented. The Center suggests that users purchase prints of frequently needed films, and the most recent rental charge can be applied towards a purchase price.

The National Audiovisual Center maintains catalogues of its motion picture and filmstrip collection. Periodic lists are issued on newly acquired films. Filmstrips, slide sets, TV "spots" and audio tapes are not for rent.

Rental prices shown for the selected titles below are for three-day periods and include shipment costs within the United States. Users will be charged for airmail costs to Hawaii, Alaska and Canada. Films may be ordered from a month to a year in advance; order processing usually takes from 30 to 45 days. The mailing address is National Audiovisual Center, Washington, D.C. 20409. Phone: 301/440-7753.

These films were selected for their timeliness and their interest to teachers, students and administrators:

How Airplanes Fly: Shows what makes an airplane get off the ground and stay aloft. Combines animation and live sequences to explain basic aerodynamics for general aviation pilots and high school science students. Describes forces of lift, weight, thrust and drag in relation to flight. (18 min., 16mm, sound, color; order no. FA-0703, sale only, $76.)

Anatomy of a Triumph: Documents man's attempts to fly--from the Wright Brothers' Kitty Hawk flight to the Apollo 11 walk on the moon. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $153.50, rental $12.50.)

Robert Frost: Shows Robert Frost reading his poems at his New England home. (28 min., 16mm, color; sale $113.50, rental $12.50.)

Art Scene U.S.A.: A look at the painters, sculptors and dancers of the 1960s in this country, including Wyeth, Warhol, Johns, Lichtenstein, Motherwell, Calder, Martha Graham and the Alwin Nikolais Dancers. Uses minimum narration, emphasizes variety and creativity. (17 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $70.25, rental $10.)

Project on Interpreting Mathematics Education Research: A series of five films prepared by the Center for Cooperative Research with Schools through a grant to Pennsylvania State U. The films are "Using a Mathematics Laboratory Approach" (15 min.); "Using Diagnosis in a Mathematics Classroom" (15 min.); "Operations with Whole Numbers" (22 min.); "Practicing Mathematical Skills" (18 min.); "Solving Verbal Problems in Mathematics" (21 min.). The series price is $380. Individual film prices vary; rental fee is $10 for each.

Ode to Joy: Shows that the development of rhythm and appreciation for music is natural and progressive. Shows children playing percussion instruments, attending live concerts, opera and ballet. Also shows them participating in school music groups. Alternates between scenes of children taking part in activities and scenes relating the music to their total environment. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $113.50, rental $12.50.)

Early Recognition of Learning Disabilities: Shows the daily activities of children in kindergarten and primary grades in two California communities and how children with learning disabilities can be identified. Interviews with parents, teachers and children emphasize the urgent need to recognize and accept learning disabilities early and provide special help for these children. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; order no. M-1890-X, sale $119.50.)

Eight-MM Film, Its Emerging Role in Education: Explores the educational potential of 8mm film. Presents a sampling of activities. Covers both current state and future promise of the role of 8mm film in education. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $94.50, rental $12.50.)

Programmed Instruction, the Teacher's Role: A series of five short films designed to stimulate teacher discussion of the various uses of programmed instruction in teaching first grade reading (10 min.); third-grade science (11 min.); fourth-grade vocabulary (13 min.); fifth-grade geography (10 min.): eighth-grade math (10 min.). (Each film sells for $21, rents for $5.)

Teams for Learning: A series of eight films to assist the teacher or teacher aide teams so that schools may more effectively meet the student's individual learning needs. The films are "Teams for Learning" (27 min.); "Various Perceptions of Auxiliaries at Work" (15 min.); "I Am a Teacher Aide" (13 min.); "Team Analysis and Planning" (17 min.); "The Adult as Enabler" (17 min.); "Home-School Interaction" (10 min.); "Some Glimpses of Anthony" (10 min.); and "Career Development" (7 min.). (Series sells for $220.75. Indiviuual film sale prices and rentals vary.)

Preparing for Tomorrow's World: Examines career possibilities for high school science students in the field of nuclear science. (26 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $105.75.)

Where There Is Hope: Points out that help is available for retarded children from both private and government agencies (note: this was made before new federal legislation established the USOE Bureau for the Handicapped). Shows the facilities of the John F. Kennedy Institute. (20 min., 16mm, color; sale $82.)

Man in Sports: An imaginative treatment of the still photographic exhibit "Man in Sports." Emphasizes the importance of sports as a common denominator among people. (8 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $150.)

The Atom--Year of Purpose: Describes 17 major developments in the peaceful uses of the atom, including nuclear power stations, agro-industrial uses, work on atom smashers. (29 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $150.)

Exploration at Boulder: Describes the work of the National Bureau of Standards at its Boulder, Colo., Laboratories, an important center for new knowledge in the fields of science and technology. (20 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $82.)

The American Island: Shows one of America's last unspoiled resources, our islands. Indicates how intelligent planning for use provides a variety of recreational activities and protects this environment. Covers islands from Maine to California. (29 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $117.50, rental $12.50.)

So Little Time: Shows the need for preserving our wildlife by presenting intimate close-ups of birds and mammals in their natural environment. Describes environmental factors contributing to the decline in waterfowl and other birdlife. Shows animals in moments of peril. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $113.50.)

Man in the Sea: Shows oceanographic work being done by the United States. Includes scenes of a sea laboratory. (30 min., 16mm, sound, black and white; sale $62.50, rental $10.)

Apollo 13--Houston, We've Got a Problem: Tells how the Apollo 13 astronauts returned safely to earth after an explosion severely damaged their service module. Emphasizes the teamwork among the astronauts. Features on-board photography. (29 min., 16mm, sound, solor; sale $137.)

Celebrations: Shows celebrations which are retained from the "old country" by Americans of diverse ethnic and national origins. Includes the feast of San Gennaro, the Chinese New Year, Zuni Indian dances, the Mexican pinata festival and an Italian-American wedding. (19 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $78, rental $10.)

The Feast: Shows how an alliance is formed between hostile Yanomamo Indian villages through feasting, trading, dancing and chanting. Recounts in detail the feast and its preparation by using only sights and sounds of the events. (29 min., 16mm, color; sale $90, rental $12.50.)

Anything for Kicks: Portrays the plight and eventual fate of a teenage couple who became addicted to heroin. Based on the actual words and ex-

periences of the couple, the film provides an insight into the lifestyle of the youthful middle class, suburban addict. Sets the stage for youths and adults to discuss the problem. (9 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $44.75, rental $7.50.)

Blue: Shows what drug addiction is like for the black person. Reconstructs the past of a young black addict. Recommended for black audiences. (24 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $97.75, rental $12.50.)

Changing: An examination of contemporary culture; in particular the quality of life as its impact is felt by a young family trying to reorient itself in a society of conflicting standards and values. Hardhat, hippie, square, straight--the terms become blurred when trying to find an appropriate lifestyle. Puts the drug question in perspective. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $78.50, rental $12.50.)

The Answer Is Understanding: Presents a detailed account of current knowledge about narcotics and dangerous drugs. Begins with the legendary "highs" of 4000 B.C. and ends with the addiction and psychedelic dillemmas of today. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $119.50, rental $12.50.)

Company of Scholars: Tells the story of the Smithsonian Institution founded in 1846 in Washington, D.C., by James Smithson's bequest for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." Includes a tour of the institution and a report of what it does today. (30 min., 16mm, sound, black and white; sale $62.40, rental $10.)

The Cradle Is Rocking: Traces the origins of jazz and depicts its continuing vitality in New Orleans, the city of its birth. Shows that jazz is still an expression of the daily joys and tribulations within the milieu from which it sprang many years ago. Narrated by a jazz musician. (12 min., 16mm, sound, black and white; sale $26.72, rental $7.50.)

Beware the Wind: Shows the principal sources of air pollution, including industrial operations, burning dumps, motor vehicles and combustion of fossil fuels like coal and oil. Describes the effects of air pollutants on animals, people and property. Shows the means of applying the available technology to bring about cleaner air. (22 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $89.75, order no. M-1707-X.)

Youth Communication: Uses illustrations from the pre-1970 era to emphasize the more important general youth communications patterns that continue to this day. Developed to assist in understanding the drug problem and to close the "Understanding Gap" that exists between adults and today's youthful media audience. (36 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $143.25.)

The New Job: Focuses on the activities of private U.S. corporations which provide vocational training and jobs for underprivileged and undereducated men and women who live in the ghettos of the United States. (20 min., 16mm, sound, black and white; sale $42.50, rental $7.50.)

The City-Time of Decision: Discusses the growing problems of U.S. cities and measures to relieve them. Includes such items as slum clearance and ur-

ban renewal, traffic congestion, electric transport, pollution control and "new towns." (26 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $105.75, rental $12.50.)

And, Of Course, You: Depicts how the common man around the world is affected by spin-off benefits of the U.S. space program. Uses motion picture, still photography and animation to show developments in food production, education communications, navigation, meteorology, resource exploration, mapping. (13 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $54.50, rental $10.)

The audiovisual Archives Division of the National Archives and Records Service has additional resources which could be important for classroom teachers and curriculum workers. Special listings are available, and the Archives will issue research permits to anyone wishing to study the catalogues or preview resources in Washington, D.C.

The largest collection in the audiovisual section of the Archives is the motion picture file--hundreds of documentary films from agriculture to zoology produced by the federal government and other groups (e.g. Office of War Information films, Time, Inc., films).

"Land of Liberty" is an example of the outstanding films found in the collection--this is a history of the United States from colonial days to 1938 consisting mostly of dramatized sequences from over 100 film classics as edited by Cecil B. DeMille.

The films in this collection may be viewed at the Archives in Washington, D.C., at Pennsylvania Avenue and 8th St. NW. Films are not for rent; they are for sale on a per foot basis. While most of them might be too expensive for small school districts, they could be acquired by multi-media centers of large districts or by intermediate units or state agencies.

Directories of Surplus Property Offices and Sources

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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